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ABSTRACT

This book presents chapters concerning various aspects of research in language arts and implications for language instruction. The works of individuals are mentioned throughout the book, and 1,168 references are included in a list of works cited in the text. The research topics covered involve language development, oral language, listening, the relationship between listening and reading, mass medic and language arts instruction, classroom applications of reading research for both secondary and elementary schools, handwriting, spelling, creative writing in secondary and elementary schools, literature, linguistics, grammar, usage, and foreign language instruction. For original announcement of this document, see ED 053 152. (VM)

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INTERPRETING LANGUAGE ARTS RESEARCH FOR THE TEACHER

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA

Coordinated by Harold G. Shane
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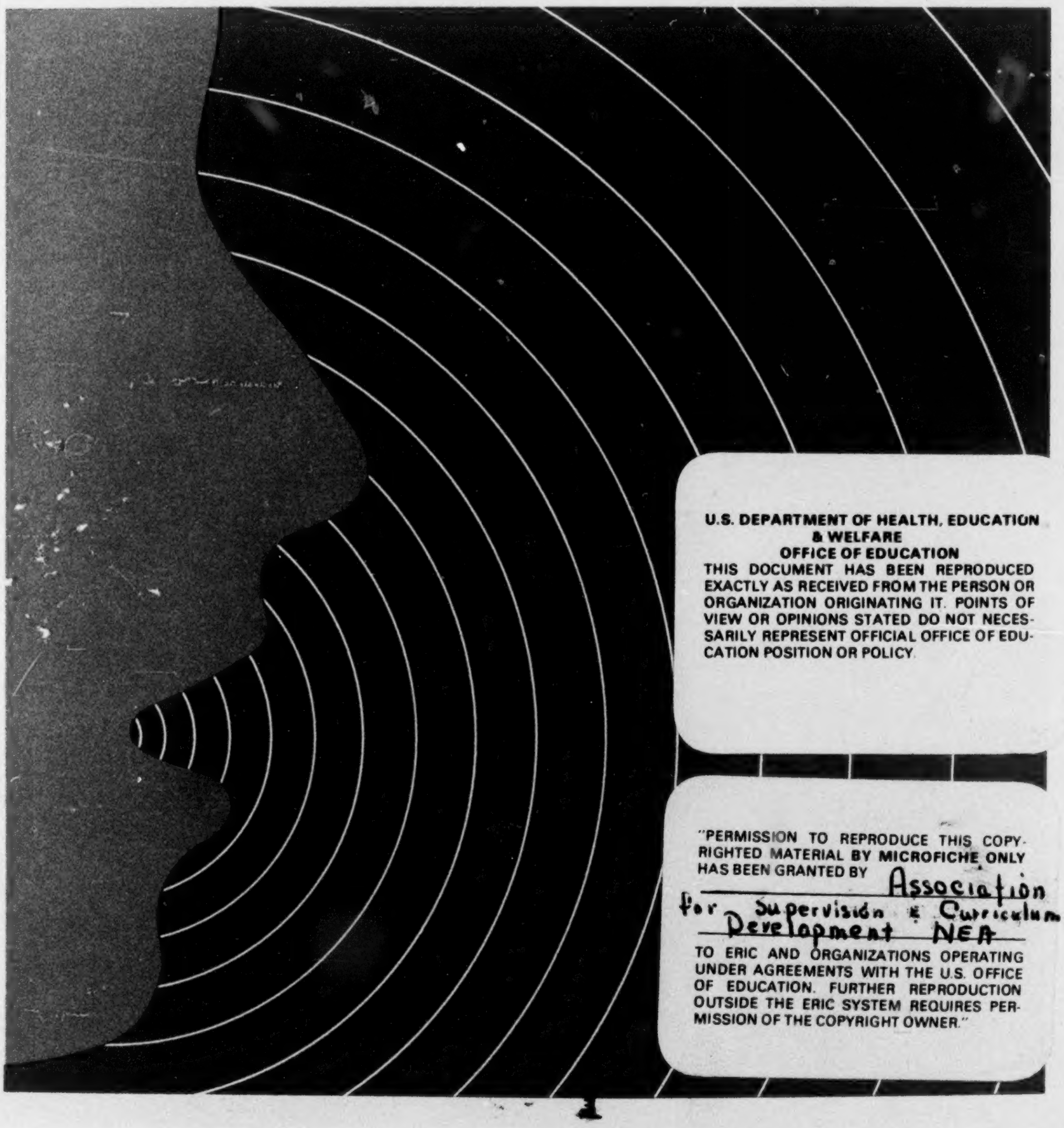

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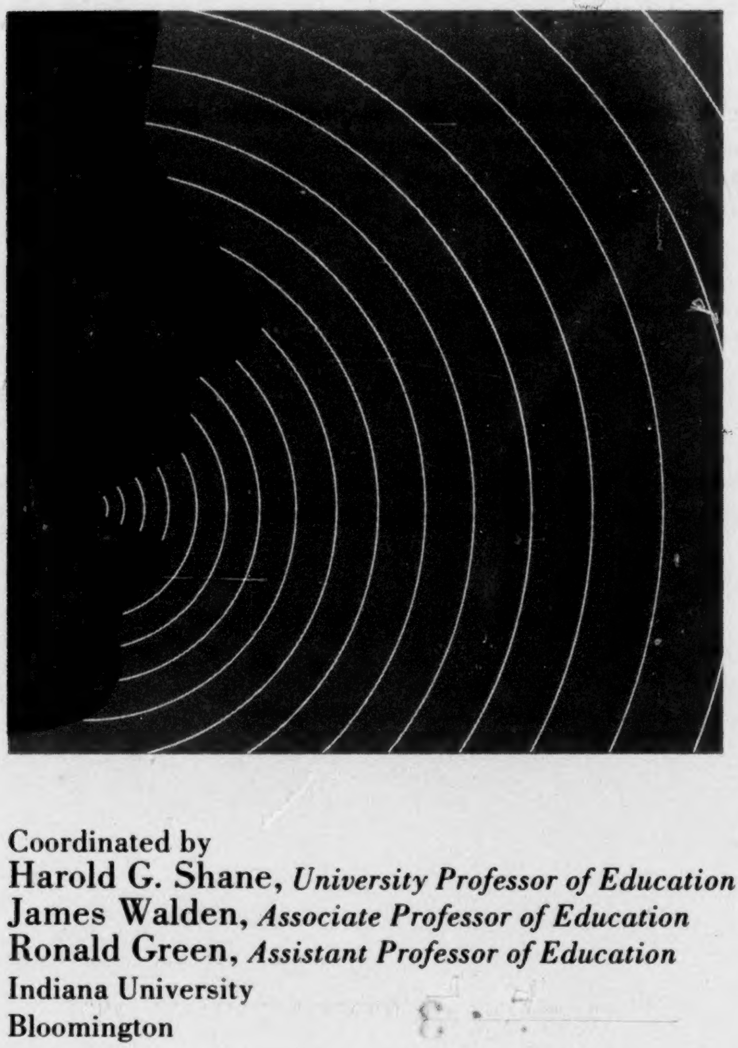

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Acknowledgments

CARL Sandburg once remarked that "Everybody is smarter than anybody." In working to prepare *Interpreting Language Arts Research for the Teacher*, our fourth ASCD research review in this field, I was again forcefully reminded of how much we depend on one another, how we learn together, and how we become more humanized through our transactions with others.

It is in this spirit that Dr. Green and Dr. Walden join me in acknowledging with respect and appreciation the effort and the interest of the advanced doctoral students (many on leave from positions of educational leadership) who worked with us during 1970 in assembling this monograph on research in the language arts. Since these able people assumed distinct and important responsibilities in compiling and writing the summaries, they are recognized at the beginning of the specific chapters to which each one contributed.

The help of other colleagues at Indiana University must be acknowledged, too. These include Eva Kiewitt, Director, Indiana University Reading Room; and Wahneta Mullen, Instructor in Foreign Languages.

A special word of thanks is due our corps of typists both in the Indiana University School of Education and in doctoral students' homes, who shared in the sometimes exasperating but always important task of making certain that the ASCD publications staff received a legible typescript. Particular appreciation is due our Research Department secretary, Mrs. Geraldine Wood, for her skill, interest, and patience.

Finally, we would also like to thank ASCD Editor and Associate Secretary, Robert R. Leeper, who handled the final editing of the manuscript and publication of this booklet. Technical production was handled by Nancy Olson, Lana Pipes, and Barbara Nash, with Mary Albert O'Neill as production manager.

Twenty-one years of close working relationships with Dr. Leeper have kept me mindful of his editorial ability and other supportive skills in our shared ASCD publication ventures.

Harold G. Shane
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Foreword

THE phrase "for the teacher" in the title of this booklet can have two meanings. First, the teacher may be aided by what research has discovered. Second, the teacher may find support for his own pet research which he has been carrying on in his classroom, but which he may not have put on paper because it seemed to him so insignificant.

The teacher often does not realize the importance of classroom creativity. Examples of such creativity can be found in (a) use of audio-visual equipment, (b) word games and sentence punctuation games for motivation, (c) glossary of subcultural slang, (d) drama, specifically as it is transferred to the community, and (e) debate and forensics.

As a teacher, you create in terms of your own situational needs. When this creativity can be viewed as research, you feel less guilty in having tricked the high school athlete who had been made to believe that to read poetry was "sissy" stuff. You had put a microphone outside the classroom door and asked him to read his favorite love poem to the accompaniment of an organ recording in the background. You had let him watch the faces of the girls through the glass in the door. Only then did he understand the expression that "poetry is meant for the ear, not the eye."

You feel more secure about the glossary of words developed for you by your youngsters who wanted you to be "in the know" or "with it." A lack of security was felt the day you dictated a word that brought a roar of laughter from the class, a simple word like "trim." You feel better about the time you felt you made a fool of yourself when you illustrated the aspirate and guttural voice quality with the phrase "I love you."

You feel great pride in the senior play group that you followed into the community and stayed with for seven years at the local settle-ment house. You remember with nostalgia the year the young people from this less advantaged community communicated with 70,000 people through the medium of the drama.

You value, too, the self-esteem that came to the black student who won the regional forensics declamation contest by reading James Weldon Johnson's "The Creation" from *God's Trombones,* and this at a time when high school anthologies did not include the works of black poets. All of these past experiences were language arts. No research was done on them. Think of the countless other opportunities for experience that might have been researched.

The material reviewed here should help the teacher to recognize that there are many unanswered questions about language arts. He might also be motivated to share some of the answers he has found.

What would be the results if reading symbols were not introduced until a child had reached his tenth birthday, and all learning was verbal until that time? What if teachers "discovered" that the child's language is more advanced than that of the textbook? What if the child were permitted to speak when he likes without penalty? Some researchers in this volume believe that the teacher's influence is dominant. If this is so, where is the risk?

ALVIN D. LOVING, SR.
President, 1971-72
Association for Supervision
and Curriculum Development

Chapter One

The Increasing Importance of Language Arts Research

HAROLD G. SHANE

ENGLISH becomes a noble tongue when one uses it with affection and respect. It can be made a powerful vehicle for conveying our feelings and emotions; for expressing our hopes, illusions, fears, or wisdom. The skillful speaker or writer can polish it to the clarity of fine crystal and use it to mirror his thoughts, to nourish his mind, and to encourage his wit. Language also is the trademark that certifies us as human even as it preserves a record of our accomplishments and failures as human beings. In view of its great value, it is important that we take time to examine research developments and what they may suggest for changes in our classroom practices.

Why language arts research is of new importance. During the nearly 20 years that have elapsed since the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development first published reviews of research in the language arts, the importance of understanding the implications of this research has become more and more widely recognized. The enhanced importance of the accumulating fund of language-related information available to teachers resides in several developments:

1. There has been an increase in the amount of available research data. Without the making of a methodical effort to keep informed regarding current developments, the language arts program can become obsolescent far more rapidly than was true 20 years ago.

2. The computer has made possible research that would have been impossible to design until the past decade. Research is not only increasing—it is tremendously more versatile and flexible in the language arts.

3. Data are more readily available through centers with acronymic names

such as ERIC. As a result, research now can be sifted more easily and applied more quickly in practice.

4. Input from the field of linguistics has, during recent years, appreciably widened the scope of research of significance to the teacher. New classroom practices are appearing as a result.

5. Interrelationships among the language arts and language development (as mediated by the child's membership in certain social classes and subcultures) have begun to be recognized as matters of profound importance.

6. Experiments in prelinguistics, biology, phonology, biochemistry, and psychology have continued to suggest that the acquisition of language is much more subtle and complex than previously suspected. For example, we are learning that babies babble alike at two or three months of age, but that a six-month-old *babbles only in his mother tongue.* Furthermore the phonemes of his native language, when taped, can be used to identify what language he will speak *when he begins to talk* (131).[1]

7. The impact of mass media is creating "language development mutations" and, as one result, research in the communications field has begun to become of even greater relevance to the language arts teacher. Undoubtedly, many implications for the curriculum will eventually be found as "Sesame Street," McLuhan's conjectures as to the global village, and the full impact of TV commercials are evaluated.

The world of the 1930's seems relatively simple in retrospect, and the 1970's and 1980's look alarmingly complex in prospect. The same generalization seems to apply to teaching the language arts! Particularly during the past decade, education has armed itself with promising ideas and widened the rim of its vision both through the compilation of data and through improved retrieval procedures.

In a time of rapid change, when old ideas and established practices are being evaluated, it is always helpful to have a reasonably accurate "research map" of the area in which one teaches. It is with the educational terrain of today that *Interpreting Language Arts Research for the Teacher* is concerned. The focus is on developments since 1963, when the last ASCD general review of the language arts appeared (943). Also, research materials presented in the 1967 ASCD publication, *Linguistics and the Classroom Teacher* (941), are brought up to date. Although emphasis throughout the monograph is placed on books and articles describing or reporting *research,* general sources in the literature which are *based* on research also are included. In effect, the chapters which follow are a review of the literature as a whole rather than a digest of research per se.

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[1] The numbers in parentheses are coded to coincide with the References on pp. 127-93.

Chapter Two

Language Development Research

EDWARD L. ROBBINS

DURING the 1960's there was a great increase of interest in the complex field of language development. For the first time in our ASCD research monographs, this topic merits a separate chapter because of the output of opinion and research, because it is a field with which many teachers are not fully acquainted, and because of its high interest value.

Evidence of growing professional concern for language development is reflected in the large number of institutes and conferences on the subject that have been conducted during the past 10 years. Reports of the research presented at those meetings constitute a large part of the literature concerning language development. Reports by Lyons and Wales (641), Rosenberg (884), Salzinger and Salzinger (902), Smith and Miller (985), and Walden (1101) are representative of the materials being produced.

Another development which gives testimony to the rapid rise in interest and research productivity in language development is the number of research summaries that were compiled during the 1960's. Berko and Brown (71), McNeill (692), Diebold (247), Ervin and Miller (300), Brown (130), Ervin-Tripp (301), and Ervin-Tripp and Slobin (302) are among those whose summaries are noteworthy. Periodic research summaries also reflect the growing interest in language development. The treatment of language development by MacGinitie (644) in the fourth (1969) edition of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* is almost double the size of Carroll's (152) corresponding summary in the third (1960) edition. A similar trend is noted in the treatment of the psychology of language in the tri-yearly summaries of research in language arts carried in the *Review of Educational Research.* The April 1967 summary by Samuels (904) listed 64 bibliographical entries, a 50 percent increase over the 41 such entries listed in April 1964 by Carroll (153).

A third development of importance was the debut, in 1962, of the bimonthly *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior.*

The strange magic of language. Spoken language is a phenomenon about which we have but little real information. To an extent that is just beginning to be realized, it is a self-taught skill. Also, with an almost preternatural ability, even young children seem to extract meaning that exceeds input and to sort out "deeper" and "surface" meanings of what they hear. However, as John Carroll concedes, "the process by which children learn their language is in many respects a mystery" (158:577).

A child often produces his first word at about his first birthday. Six months later—in normative terms, of course—he constructs his first two-word sentence. By his third birthday he has mastered most of the sentence types found in adult speech; and, according to Gleason, by the time he enters school ". . . his knowledge of English is so vast and complex that no one has yet been able to program the most sophisticated computer to turn out the sentences that any five-year-old can produce with ease and assurance" (380:16).

To say that there are disagreements concerning the nature of the process whereby this phenomenal development is accomplished is an understatement. It is little wonder that the study of a skill so complex and acquired during such a brief period has a measure of controversy.

The lack of "final" answers notwithstanding, there is still much in the research literature on language development that should be most useful to educational practitioners in their efforts to improve the language skills of children in their classes and clinics. Much useful research evidence is distributed among three areas: (a) the sequence of language development, (b) theories of language acquisition, and (c) the impact of environmental influence on language development. Each is considered in turn.

The Sequence of Language Development

If there is a topic concerning language development about which scholars can agree, it is the apparent sequence of events in language development. A child produces sounds from the moment of birth—

and perhaps in rare instances and under special circumstances even before birth, according to Carmichael (150:7). Verbal development from the birth cry to mature language follows a definite pattern.

Lenneberg (596) maintains that it is only under conditions of intellectual or environmental deprivation that this pattern varies. The deHirsch (228) study of the language of children born prematurely also found that, on the basis of 15 measures of language facility, children born prematurely were significantly inferior on seven of the measures. Conceivably, being premature constitutes a form of the environmental deprivation described by Lenneberg.

Pre-language development. The period between the first sound the infant makes and true language—a period of approximately one year—has been labeled as the period of *prelinguistic vocalizations* by Ervin-Tripp (301:57), as the *preverbal period* by MacGinitie (644:690), and as the period of *infant vocalization* by Raph (856:390).

The prelinguistic period has been further divided into three developmental stages by Ervin-Tripp (301). These are: (a) organically based sounds, (b) vocal play and babbling, and (c) intentional imitative speech behavior. Fry (359) and Miller (718) identify cooing and babbling as two different aspects of the prelinguistic period. These three writers, along with MacGinitie (644), review research pertaining to these stages.

Cooing is identified as a distinct vocal period because, unlike any other stage, the sounds produced during that stage are for the most part vocal indicators of the child's state of being. Fry (359), Miller (718), and Ervin-Tripp (301) have observed four vocalizations which include respiration, fussing, crying, and cooing.

The transition from the cooing to the babbling stage is marked by a gradual change in the vocal output of the child. Miller (718:32) states that the most significant characteristic of this change is the increasing degree of control the individual exercises over his vocal production. Fry provides a concise summary of the babbling stage:

> During the babbling stage, therefore, the child is doing two important things: he is trying out mechanisms that will be needed for speech, combining phonation with articulation and no doubt gaining a certain control of the respiratory system, and he is establishing the circuits by which motor activity and auditory impressions are firmly linked together. He is learning the acoustic effect of making certain movements and finding out how to repeat a movement, how to do it again and again to get more or less the same acoustic results. In

one sense he is learning a trick, and the experience lasts him, so to speak, for the rest of his life (359:190).

Language development. The process by which random vocalizations become words is not precisely known. What is known is that, by about the time he is one year old, the child produces the first unit of sound to which he attaches specific meaning. This first "word" marks the beginning of the true linguistic development of the child. Unlike the prelinguistic period, which could be divided into distinct stages of development, the period of linguistic development is characterized by three linguistic elements which develop in a parallel and interrelated manner: (a) phonology, (b) morphology, and (c) syntax.[1]

Phonology is concerned with the study of the specific speech sounds that are used in a language. Miller and Ervin (719) describe the process by which the phonemes of the language are learned. This research, which is also cited by Miller (718) and MacGinitie (644), indicates that these sounds, rather than being learned individually, are learned through a series of vocal and motor contrasts. Among the contrasts noted were the differences between vowels and consonants, labial and dental consonants, stop and fricative consonants, and voiced and unvoiced consonants. The learning of vowel contrasts follows the same pattern. According to Miller (718), the normal child learns nearly all the phonemic elements of the English language by the age of three and a half or four. Paralleling the child's learning of the sounds of his language is the activity of combining these sounds into meaningful units.

Among contributors to our knowledge of early language are Roger Brown and his associates. Through the study of language in its beginning stages and the use of special testing techniques which involve the use of nonsense words, they apparently have been able to identify many features of the language acquisition process. Brown (129) has observed that, contrary to popular belief, individuals do not always learn the names of objects in the most concrete form. Much more abstract forms are often learned first.

Studies by Braine (109), Brown and Fraser (132), Ervin (299), and Miller and Ervin (719) of the words used in the child's first sentences—usually two words produced at about 18 months—have shown that these words tend to fall into two classes, a "pivot" class and an "open" class. The "pivot" class is composed of a few words which are used often, in a particular position in the sentence. The "open" class, on the other hand, contains many more words which are typically nouns, verbs, or objectives. Sentences such as *there baby*, *there daddy*, and *there shoe* are examples of the use of the "pivot" word *there* combined with common "open" class words. McNeill (693:22) provides a table showing examples of words that have been observed in three selected studies.

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[1] The reader is referred to Shane (941:104-10) and Ervin-Tripp (301:96-97) for glossaries of linguistic terms.

In a further discussion of this abbreviated speech, Brown and Fraser (132) characterized this early structure as "telegraphic" language. They found that, for the most part, the child tended to produce only those elements that were essential for meaning. They held, however, that it would be inaccurate to conclude that the child was consciously abbreviating completely formed sentences. They theorized, rather, that the child's limited capability for recall prevented more elaborate sentence formations.

Researchers have not limited their efforts to studying language through observations of the child's natural speech. Special techniques also have been employed to generate verbal behavior intended to test several hypotheses about the development of language.

Berko (70) used nonsense words to test the child's ability to apply certain morphological rules in the formation of plurals and inflections. Using such nonsense words as *gutch, spow, lun, niz,* and *bod,* the investigator presented the words in situations in which the child was required to form a plural or an inflected form of the nonsense word. The responses of the individuals tested demonstrated that they were able to apply morphological rules in encounters with previously unknown units.

Using Berko's nonsense words, Miller and Ervin (719) found that, with less common forms of plurals and inflections, children were able to use correct forms in their natural language before being capable of generalizing the rule to the nonsense forms. The implication of the findings of these two studies seems to be that a child combines the learning of specific word elements with the learning of general morphological rules.

The rather slow systematic pace which characterizes the development of language throughout most of the "telegraphic" period gives way to a period of rapid development at about age two and a half. Between that time and about age four, the child adds many new elements to his language ability, according to Miller (718:35), who lists model auxiliaries, prepositions, conjunctions, and more complex inflected forms which allow for grammatical operations that were impossible at an earlier developmental stage. This rapid growth continues beyond age four; and studies by Dodd (251), Goodman (391), Loban (619), McGee (683), Menyuk (702), Smith (983), Strickland (1035), and Welch (1125) show that the language abilities of children at or about age five or six have developed to a point at which they can handle language situations in an almost adult manner.

Theories of Language Acquisition

While limited agreement can be found concerning the *sequence* of language development, there is less agreement concerning the *process* by which language is acquired. In fact it is almost impossible to identify schools of thought as in other areas; and an interpretation and comparison of the positions of psychologists, linguists, and psycholinguists comprise a hazardous undertaking. Although each seems to be going his own way, it is possible to review several language acquisition theories in terms of a continuum. In such a continuum, the poles are similar to those in the nature-nurture controversy over the character of intelligence.

Environment as a factor. The nurture pole of our theoretical continuum is occupied by the behavioralistic approach to language acquisition taken by Mowrer (729), who contends that the child learns language through a process of associating the language sounds he hears and the ones he produces in his own babbling. This is reinforced by some rewarding experience such as special attention received from adults. Skinner (975) explains the learning process by which language is learned as a type of "instrumental conditioning." According to this model, *responses and the consequences they generate are critical.* The strength of the response-reward linkage is directly related to the number of times the response-reward occurs.

In an effort to expand theories such as those presented by Mowrer and Skinner so that it is possible to account for the ability an individual has to produce sentences he has never heard, Salzinger (901) proposes the concept of "response classes" in language learning. This position assumes that what is learned when a child is rewarded is not merely limited to the elements that are rewarded, but includes the *relationships* between and among those elements. Jenkins and Palermo (508) and Braine (109) have taken a similar position in explaining the child's ability to create unique utterances.

Language theories on the nurture end of the language acquisition continuum emphasize the interaction of the child and the language stimulation he receives from his environment. On the other hand, as theories move along the continuum toward the naturistic pole, much more importance is placed on language processing mechanisms within the individual.

Innate language mechanism concepts. Chomsky's (174) position is that the child possesses an innate language processing mechanism, and this mechanism is uniquely designed to allow the individual to acquire the rules on which the language he hears is structured. It is thus necessary for the child to be exposed only to a relatively small sample of the totality of the language possibilities in order for him to be able to produce an almost infinite variety of language expressions.

Chomsky likens this ability to a "language acquisition device" which serves as a kind of data processing system—one that is more or less *preprogrammed* with the language universal upon which all languages are structured. It is required, therefore, that the child be exposed only to a minimal sample of the language he is to learn in order that the raw data of that language (its rules) can be processed (generalized) by the acquisition device.

In his analysis of language ability, Chomsky places particular emphasis on the individual's language *competence* (the individual's knowledge of his language) rather than his language *performance* (the language the individual actually uses).

A step closer to the naturistic pole is McNeill (693), who, like Chomsky, attributes to the child an innate language acquisition device. There are differences between their theories only with respect to the degree to which these devices are preprogrammed. McNeill seems to imply a more specifically programmed data processing capacity.

Lenneberg (596) apparently occupies the "pole position" at the naturistic end of the theoretical continuum. His position is that the human capacity for language development is a species-specific phenomenon. Lenneberg uses the arguments that the regularity of onset, the definite developmental pattern that is followed (even when retarded by pathological conditions), and the relationship between specific levels of language skill and the development of certain motor skills support his biologically based theory.

At present it is not clear as to which position on the environment-innate language continuum will prove to be the more nearly correct. What is clear is that, as of 1971, no opinion has acquired sufficient evidence to support totally its position on the continuum. Perhaps a synthesis of opinions eventually will develop.

A basic question in the realm of language acquisition is whether or not any theory is as yet adequate to explain the creativity with which an individual utilizes his language.

Environmental Influences on Language Development

Since children reared in an English speaking milieu learn to speak English and not some other language, the influence of environment is self-evident. The question is, what are the environmental circumstances that influence language development? Since the middle of the past decade the federal government has spent many dollars to support research and special educational programs for the nation's children from poorer families, and (with the possible exception of reading and intelligence) no aspect of that effort has received more attention than the language used by these children. This was to be expected since language usage skills have long been considered a prerequisite for school success.

Environmental impairment. The literature contains reports from many studies that support the notion that there are environmental influences that preclude adequate language development. Bernstein (75), in a comparison of British middle class and working class children, characterized the working class children as having available a "restricted code," whereas middle class children were found to have available a more "elaborated code." In a study of first and fifth grade children of low socioeconomic status, Deutsch (242) found the ability of these children to use correct structural patterns to be noticeably deficient. Osser (783) obtained similar results in his study of five-year-olds. Templin (1058), in a study including similar children, found lower class children to be inferior in oral vocabulary, sentence structure, and articulation ability. Worley and Story (1154) indicate that the family and cultural background of the child can make a difference of as much as eight months in the language ability of first graders.

Thomas (1059) compared the sentence structure, grammatical errors, parts of speech used, and vocabulary of 50 black and 50 white children of low socioeconomic status and found that Negro children of low socioeconomic class tended to be somewhat lower in amount, maturity, and accuracy of oral expression than similar white children. However, the combined groups were found to commit more errors in verb-subject agreement, use more slang and wrong word order, and omit or misuse parts of speech more than children from higher socioeconomic families. Stephenson's (1018) doctoral research supports the difference found by Thomas.

In a comparison of various subgroups of lower class children with a normative group, Webb (1119) found that on the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Ability all lower class subgroups were deficient. Barritt and Samuel (55), using essentially the same approach, drew similar conclusions. The lower class children in Webb's (1119) study were also found to be lower on a test of auditory discrimination, a finding supported by Clark and Richards (180).

Several writers have studied the environments of lower socioeconomic children as well as the children themselves. Jensen (513), May (665), Olem, Hess, and Shipman (770), and Riessman (871) all have found a direct relationship between the quality of the child's environmental circumstances and his language facility.

"Deficient" versus "different" language usage. Not all writers have been willing to accept the notion that observed differences between the language ability of lower class and middle class children necessarily reflect a language "deficiency." Stewart (1024) and Labov (576), who have made extensive studies of the language of Negro children in Detroit and New York City, respectively, argue persuasively that different dialects should not be evaluated in terms of deviations from some standard dialect. They maintain that these dialects must be studied according to the linguistic systems they follow rather than according to some outside system.

A number of studies which discuss the levels of language development of children speaking dialects indicate that, in terms of the linguistic structure of the dialect, the children *have* adequate language abilities. Baratz (51), Cazden (164), LaCivita, Kean, and Yamamoto (579), Olsen (771), and Vick and Johnson (1095) are among those reporting the results of studies which compare the language abilities of upper socioeconomic and lower socioeconomic children on elements other than those found in standard English. Their findings support the view that there are no significant differences between the language abilities of low and high socioeconomic children *when nonstandard language criteria are used.* Questions also have been raised concerning the techniques used to sample the language of lower class children in the more traditional comparative studies. Hurst and Jones (494) and Labov (578) have suggested that traditional testing and interviewing techniques are not appropriate for lower class children and that representative samples of the child's language are not obtained.

The implications of research findings concerning the language skills of lower class children—particularly those which approach the problem from the "different" rather than the "deficient" point of view—were just beginning to influence classroom practice in the early 1970's. The testing of a child's language ability according to his own linguistic system is now expanding, as is the teaching of standard English as a foreign language. Serious attention also is being given to the advisability of developing a basal reading series using nonstandard dialects.

Some Unanswered Questions

Despite the encouraging increase in data which occurred during the 1960's, much remains to be explored in language development research. In the sequence of language development, for instance, we need to ascertain the significance of the variability with which usage skills are acquired and also to explore more fully the influence of the child's membership in a given subculture in relation to his language development.

Much more time and energy need to be invested in the probing of innate language acquisition, and its relation to nonstandard language patterns. Furthermore, clearer distinctions need to be drawn between language *performance* and *competence*. The school's future posture and practices with respect to nonstandard dialects also need to be determined, although this decision may be postponed until we have reached greater agreement on the virtue of nourishing nonstandard speech and the program changes such a policy would demand.

Chapter Three

The Spoken Word

BETTE L. COOKE

AT LEAST since the National Council of Teachers of English called attention to the spoken word in the 1952 report of its Curriculum Commission, there has been a growing acceptance of the importance of oral language, "... the only genuine form of language," according to the Commission. During the 1960's linguists' emphasis on the "primacy of speech" brought added attention to oral communication.

Research completed during the past several years has continued to provide enlightening and useful information that promises to improve classroom practice.

Children's Understanding of Oral Language

Word knowledge. Recent research findings indicate that the language most children bring to school is decidedly more sophisticated than that which is found in their textbooks. According to Ervin and Miller (300:116), the mastery of most basic grammatical fundamentals has occurred for many children by the time they are four years old. Anderson's (20) study of first grade children also indicated that children possess a much larger oral vocabulary than is used in their basal readers. He also suggested that a child's oral vocabulary is likely to be related to topics different from those found in basal readers.

In a report by Strickland (1035), there is further evidence cited that the oral language children use is more advanced than the language of the books in which they are taught to read. She points out a need for *evidence* as to whether children would be aided or hindered by more advanced language in their books.

Other studies by Hocker (463) and Strang (1028:40) deal with the same topic. In a similar vein, Lorge and Chall (626:149) state that in present day reading programs "... it is probably at reading grade levels four through six that most children can pronounce (recognize in print) more words than they understand or speak."

Loban (619), in a longitudinal study of 338 kindergartners, learned that there appear to be predictable stages of growth in oral language and that definite sequences in language development can be identified. Loban emphasized that less time should be spent on the correction of errors in usage and more time spent stressing the interdependence of language and thought.

Improving communication skills. In an investigation by Fry (358), specific hypotheses were tested in order to learn more about training children to communicate with their listeners. It was assumed that students who alternately took the part of speaker and listener during training would improve their communication abilities more than students who assumed only one or the other of these two roles. The unexpected result was that dual role playing failed to make a significant difference. Fry suggested that communicative feedback seemed to be as good as actual role-reversal practice in bringing about improved oral skill. This same investigation also revealed that oral training increased brevity in speech by decreasing the amount of less relevant spoken information.

Gagné and Smith (364) studied the effects of verbalization on problem solving and found that requiring individuals to verbalize produced a significantly superior performance. Principles used by the individuals in this experiment were "discovered" by the children themselves. The study also suggested that verbalizing is an important factor in producing individuals who can, at the close of practice, make adequate statements of the verbal principles involved in task solution.

Rowley and Stone (887) also concerned themselves with improving the verbal behavior of elementary and junior high school children. They concluded that desired performance could be reinforced by social approval.

Essentials of effective communication. Learning to communicate effectively involves more than the acquisition of a set of linguistic skills, according to Strang (1027). She says that the essentials are: (a) a thought; (b) grammatically acceptable sentence structure; (c) precise and vivid words spoken with appropriate stress, pitch, and intonation; (d) a pleasing voice; (e) knowledge of the subject; and (f) a desire to communicate.

Sansom's (908:4) "objectives of oral communication" served to extend Strang's six points. The objectives were said to be:

> Helping each child to develop and express his own personality, including his imaginative and creative powers
>
> Helping him to understand and cooperate with others
>
> Increasing his control over the mechanics of speech so that he can communicate more effectively
>
> Encouraging the growth of a "middle language" (halfway between literary and playground chatter) which would still enable him to meet a variety of social situations
>
> Developing a love of language, through enjoyment found in the spontaneous use of words.

Bloom (89:163) contended that "the objectives of oral communication should be realized one step at a time, with considerable practice devoted to each technique."

Many children wish to improve their oral effectiveness by the time they reach the secondary school, according to Griffith (402). He says this applies in social and in audience situations, and with respect to reception of oral communication. If it be true that young adolescents do wish to improve their speech, one would infer from Becker (62) that there is room for improvement! He estimated that at least 50 percent of them use substandard speech.

When endeavoring to help students improve their oral usage, teachers should avoid too-frequent critical comments, Strickland (1032) urged; while Hopkins (472) pointed out the *oral* language is too often judged by standards applied to the *written* word. Whatever a teacher does in practice probably should be influenced by that large number of rules which a child can violate in a few seconds of normal, fluent speech. Joos (527) suggests that teachers cheerfully tolerate one error in 60 utterances. "Teacher and pupil must come to terms with each other [recognizing] that usages can be learned without condemning those which they replace, [and] that the learner has [the] right to speak as he likes without school penalties . . ." (527:206).

The School Environment as an Influence on Oral Language

Although the relative importance of heredity and environment remains an unresolved issue, research and opinion alike suggest that elements in the child's surroundings appreciably influence his use of language. Among these environmental elements are: (a) teachers, (b) other children, (c) school organization, and (d) instructional practices, according to May (667:30).

Teacher influence. Recent writings contain a number of assumptions and statements regarding teacher influence on language. Piaget (821) noted that young children in particular are unconsciously affected by a teacher's speech, and Lindberg (611:760) has said that "teachers who use many colorful words begin to hear these from boys and girls." No recent data on the teacher's actual mediation of oral language were located, however.

Peer influence. Often between the ages of eight and ten, children begin to move toward acceptance of the language patterns of their peers. Coleman (191) concluded that peer groups have a greater impact on achievement than do any other aspects of the environment including the teacher, and Strickland (1034:60) writes that "some children reached out eagerly for all new bits of slang and even a little of completely unauthorized language" as they move into the middle school years.

Apparently peer group influence on language can sometimes transcend other environmental influences, including previous training by parents. To illustrate, Goldberg (389) reported that Puerto Rican children in depressed urban areas often continue to speak Spanish instead of English in order to distinguish themselves from American Negroes.

School organization and oral language. While Ware (1110) claimed some success in working with disadvantaged children grouped in "Rooms of Twenty," there are few studies relating school organization and language development. Heathers (444), for instance, compared the scores on standardized achievement tests of students who were being taught in self-contained classrooms and of those being taught by team teaching methods and found no significant differences in the scores.

Instructional practices. May (667:36) has made the observation that the school program is of appreciable importance in the development of oral language and specifically says that "In school the oral language proficiency of children appears to be enhanced by instructional programs which offer specific practice in articulation, voice control, usage, and other elements of oral expression." On the whole, there would appear to be a consensus on this point, as the following excerpts indicate:

In preparing a play, considerable oral language development can be encouraged (Turner, 1082).

A dozen different language arts skills can be strengthened through creative dramatics (Allen, 9).

Creative drama improves communication skills (Side, 959). It extends the range, fluency, and effectiveness of pupils' speech (Whitehead, 1134).

With respect to poetry reading, clearly an oral art, Sansom (908) stresses the need for good teacher models, and Bolz (94) directs attention to the need to develop a "climate of understanding that encourages oral participation." Farrell (312) argues that oral reading is an important practice with the culturally disadvantaged and the slower student. Manolakes (652) warns that a child must want to share orally, and that participation by a shy child should not be "forced."

Also related to the realm of classroom practices is Loban's (620) statement that language drill can be reduced in an atmosphere which encourages involvement, thought, and discussion. Other relevant observations from Loban include the following:

Pupils from homes where standard English prevails do not need drill or help with usage; they need instruction concerned with increasing their coherence and effectiveness.

In ten years of schooling, pupils from homes in which social class dialect is used make almost no improvement in using the verb *to be* appropriately or in standardizing verb forms.

The practice, so common among weaker teachers, of drilling all pupils on the same skill is not supported by this research. Individual pupils, but not whole classes of pupils, will need help if they are to use the standard forms of irregular verbs.

The pupil's awareness of how the same coherences occur in writing, listening, and reading reinforces instruction in language. A student's awareness of the pitfalls of communication is necessary for his improvement in coherence (620).

Relationships Between Oral Language and Other Language Skills

Perhaps because of most linguists' stress on the primacy of speech, the importance of oral language as a basis for the communication skills received considerable attention beginning in the mid-1960's.

A study reported by Strickland (1035) indicated that a distinct relationship existed between speaking and listening and that there was a significant relationship between speaking and oral reading. Inquiries by both Strickland (1031) and Loban (619) suggest a relationship between children's demonstrated use of movables and subordination in oral language and their reading and listening achievement. Loban also reported a relationship between children's oral and written language abilities. Ruddell (891) found correlations of .68 and .44 between children's syntactical language development measured early in grade one and the respective factors of vocabulary achievement and comprehension achievement measured in mid-year. Finally, Lundsteen (636) identified a significant correlation between critical listening and reading achievement at the fifth grade level.

Other persons who recently have described or otherwise taken note of the interrelationships between oral language and other language activities include Manolakes (652), DeBoer (223), Emerick (289), Veith (1090), Strang (1027), Gunderson (414), and Hunter (492). The last two have directed attention to a relationship between oral language and concept development.

In conclusion, in the various dimensions of the language arts, research involving the spoken word is perhaps the least palpable. No doubt this is due to the fleeting nature of speech, a quality which makes it more elusive to study (even when transcribed) than, say, handwriting or spelling. This point notwithstanding, there has been an increase in both interest in and research probes of oral language since the early 1960's.

Chapter Four

"Having Ears They Hear Not"

Donald S. Kachur

IN RECENT years there has been a modest increase in listening research. However, actual changes in classroom practices involving the improvement of listening are difficult to identify. Surveys show that the need for teaching listening skills has been recognized by many educators, but as a survey by Van Wingerden (1088) indicates, teachers fail to devote as much time to teaching listening as they say they do. This inconsistency may stem from the fact that teachers generally tend to rely heavily on textbook materials as a guide for instruction—and here again an inconsistency is prevalent between the acknowledgment of the importance of listening by publishers and authors, and their failure to include in textbooks any substantial amount of material designed to improve listening. This finding is based on two studies by Brown (125, 126), who, in examining the extent and content of listening and speech lessons in language arts textbooks for children in grades 3-6, found that little space is given to the improvement of listening behavior.

In fairness to publishers, it must be conceded that another reason for the limited application of research findings to classroom practices almost certainly results from the present lack of definitive information as to the nature of the listening process and as to the best means of instruction for improving and evaluating listening skills.

The Improvement of Listening

A question examined in the 1955 and 1963 ASCD reviews of research in the language arts (942, 943)—one that continues to receive attention from investigators—is whether skills in listening actually can be taught. At long last, however, some research has focused on procedures for developing listening skills, with special attention to the refinement of such instructional materials and procedures.

Improving listening skills. Several studies continue to reaffirm findings summarized by Shane and Mulry (943) that listening skills can be improved through instruction. In working with fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils, Fawcett (314) concluded that instruction in listening skills can improve listening ability. Van Valkenburg's (1087) investigation indicated that using a series of listening lessons with children from different socioeconomic backgrounds was effective in increasing both listening and reading comprehension. A study providing specific instruction in the skills of purposeful listening with seventh graders by Desousa and Cowles (240) likewise resulted in the improvement of listening abilities.

A breakthrough in listening instruction occurred with respect to critical listening abilities in research recounted by Lundsteen (636). She defined "critical listening" as the process of examining spoken materials in light of related objective evidence, comparing the ideas with some standard or consensus, and then concluding or acting upon the judgment made (638, 639). In her study of fifth and sixth grade children, she arrived at the conclusion that, given the provision of appropriate instructional listening materials and opportunities for experiences, an elementary school pupil has considerable ability to improve his critical listening (639). To determine whether listening training led to permanent improvement in the skills of listening, a follow-up study (made with the same students) was also described by Lundsteen (638). She contended that for the experimental group, the training in critical listening continued to be favorable as to both permanence and amount of transfer to in-school and out-of-school activities.

In contrast, a number of researchers have come forth with findings that challenge the assumption that listening skills can be improved that easily by listening instruction. Hollingsworth (466) examined the influence of two modified listening programs upon reading achievement and listening comprehension, respectively, in the eighth grade and found that neither influenced either reading achievement or listening comprehension significantly. A second study by Hollingsworth (465)—one using a commercially produced program with fifth graders—again supported no significant gain in reading achievement, in listening comprehension, or in study skills development. This study led the researcher to decide that teacher involvement was an important means of encouraging student growth in listening skills. Hollingsworth's conclusions were not in line with the findings of Kraner (567), who, in comparing listening instruction based on recorded tapes versus teacher prepared and presented lessons, found the recorded presentations were just as effective, if not more so, in the areas measured. Petrie (812) concluded that direct listening training of the type used in his study failed to improve listening comprehension ability.

A study at the secondary level by Meyer (705) failed to show any significantly different results as to improvement in listening scores based on listening instruction. An explanation for this finding and those listed above is summed up by Meyer's statement (705:304) that "something is amiss with the way we teach 'listening improvement' or with the way we purport to measure it. . . . We may be on the wrong track in both efforts, [in] teaching as well as [in] measurement."

Two studies which centered on instructional procedures and the amount of instruction needed for improvement in listening at the college level were reported in recent years. Brewster (114) made the point that attempts at improving listening ability through "short-cut" methods of listening training were ineffective. He deemed it necessary to have substantial periods of instructional time both in listening techniques and in related activities for the improvement of listening skills. Johnson and Richardson (520) found that the lecture method of listening training and practice and a lecturer-oriented method of speaker evaluation, as used in their study, apparently enhanced listener comprehension.

Other research reviews of the teaching of listening skills have been conducted by Prescott, Potter, and Franks (847), and by Russell (895).

Conditions Affecting Listening Ability

The effects of various conditions or factors upon listening repeatedly have been investigated. These studies range from conditions *within* the individual (general mental ability, maturity, hearing and anxiety, etc.) to conditions *outside* the individual (socioeconomic status, grade levels, pre-primary instruction, and even seating arrangements).

Hearing loss. Whether poor listening is associated with poor hearing was questioned by Ross (885), who found as many good listeners as poor listeners among students who had a loss of 20 decibels or more in one or both ears. The influence of anxiety upon listening performance was studied by Higgins (456), who subsequently stated that no substantial relationship existed among anxiety, listening ability, and achievement.

Early instruction; social class. Nesbitt (747) compared the auding achievement of first graders who had one year of pre-primary instruction with the achievement of first grade children who had no instruction. Significant differences as to auding achievement were found in favor of those having pre-primary instruction. She also discovered that socioeconomic status apparently did not contribute significantly to the auding achievement of the subjects in the sample. However, another study by Ross (885) indicated that good listeners do tend to come from middle and upper class homes while poor listeners come from lower and lower-middle class homes.

Maturity. Whether maturity plays a significant role in listening performance has been the subject of investigation in a number of studies. A study by Condon (193) indicated that students' performance on a standardized listening test was affected by maturity. Both good and poor listeners increased in mean listening scores as they advanced from grade 9 through 13. The positive effect of maturity on listening ability apparently was substantiated by a study by Farrow (313), as significant increases in objective listening attention scores by grade level were recorded. In studying age trends in selective listening, Maccoby and Konrad (642) pointed out the importance of language familiarity achieved through redundancies of material, with skill in selective listening increasing with age, at least through the ages found in kindergarten to fourth grade, which was the range of this study. Winter (1143) found highly significant improvement in listening competence from fourth to sixth grade, possibly due in part to chronological age. A study by Kelly (547) brings attention to the significant influence of general mental ability in listening comprehension under typical test conditions.

Brooks and Wulftange (118) discovered that interest in the materials presented and the personality of the speaker affected listening comprehension. Finally, Furbay (361) learned that the scattered seating of an audience would lead people to be more logically persuaded and influenced by listening to a speech than if they sat together in a compact group.

Rate of Presentation as a Factor in Comprehension

An aspect of listening research that is receiving increased attention is the relationship between the rate of presentation of material and comprehension.

Comprehension and rate. Increased speaking rates can be achieved through several techniques. For instance, recent advances in technology now make it possible to process an original tape recording in which speaking rate is increased without significant distortions of the pitch, intonation, or stress patterns in the speech (780:28).

The normal presentation rate for accurate comprehension is regarded to be around 150-175 words per minute. Wood (1150) worked with elementary students and found that they could exceed 90 percent comprehension at presentation rates as high as 350 wpm. Students in the high school can learn without a significant loss of comprehension to rapid speech presented at a rate of 275-325 wpm, which was attained in the study by Langford (585). Friedman's study (353) demonstrated that students in college can learn to comprehend college level material at better than twice the normal rate. Orr (776) contended that his research has shown that normal college students can comprehend material presented at about 300 wpm with relatively slight loss in comprehension, even without training. Many investigations on compressed speech that are very informative have been conducted in the past several years by Orr (775, 777), Orr and Graham (779), and Orr, Friedman, and Williams (781). Finally, Ernest's study (298) led her to conclude that listening comprehension is not significantly affected by the rate at which experimental material is presented.

Increasing comprehension. Many of the studies tested comprehension levels of rapid speech without providing students either instruction or practice. However, the effects and amount of practice in relation to better comprehension at rapid presentation rates also have been studied by a number of researchers. Miller (715) found that the ability to comprehend can be increased by practice and that it takes a rather short time to adjust satisfactorily to a rate of speech at 380 wpm. Friedman (353) indicated that with ten hours of practice, significant improvements in comprehension at two and one-half times normal speed of presentation could be accomplished. Orr (777) further confirmed the small amount of practice needed for improving comprehension of speeded-up material used in his investigation. Ernest (298) pointed out the need to consider the type of material as an important variable when investigating listening comprehension in relation to compressed speech.

Studies of the effects of compressed speech on the comprehension of crippled and retarded children were conducted by de Hoop and Spicker. For the comprehension of material by cerebral palsied and other crippled children, de Hoop (231) reported a rate of 175 wpm as superior in the use of learning materials, and that for mentally retarded students and for students with limited sight, a rate of 210 wpm yielded better results for the comprehension of learning materials (230). Spicker (1003) found a speaking rate of 125 wpm best for results with the mentally retarded and that 175 wpm were best for the intellectually normal student.

Reading and Listening Relationships

Research continues to probe the degree of relationship between listening and reading—the input channels of communication—and to explore the influence of instruction in one of the two areas upon the other.

Correlation studies. Good readers tend to be good listeners, average readers tend to be average listeners, and poor readers tend to be poor listeners, according to Rachael Reeves (865). She found in her study of listening and reading relationships a highly significant difference existing in the listening performance of the high, middle, and low reading performers. Durrell (274) concerned himself with investigating children's listening and reading vocabulary and their comprehension. His findings showed that the listening vocabulary is superior to the reading vocabulary in all primary grades, and that the two abilities tend to become equal at eighth grade. Listening comprehension of longer units of language is superior to reading comprehension until sixth grade, at which time reading comprehension surpasses listening comprehension. This last conclusion is partially supported by the results in research by Breiter (113).

Other studies that found high or significant correlations between certain aspects of reading and listening were conducted by Brown (122), Condon (193), Fawcett (314), Jackson (500), Ross (885), and Winter (1143). A bibliography of particular interest for its references to studies conducted before 1963 in regard to the consistent, positive relationship between listening and reading is found in Duker's (269) article on "Listening and Reading."

Does instruction in listening increase the efficiency of reading? Harriet Reeves' study (864) with fourth graders and Lewis' study (606) with college freshmen uncovered no significant differences in reading performance after instruction in listening was provided. Reddin's work (859) with fourth, fifth, and sixth grades also produced no significant improvement in skills in reading for main ideas or to foster the critical thinking of pupils after listening skills instruction was provided. Hollingsworth's investigation (466) of two modified listening programs had no effect on reading achievement, and his later investigation of another commercially produced program (467) showed no effect upon reading achievement. However, Kellogg (546) found, in using an experience-structured literature listening program, that a significant difference in reading vocabulary achievement can be attained. A number of research reports also are cited in Hollingsworth's (465) article "Can Training in Listening Improve Reading?" Many of these show that reading can be improved through the development of listening abilities. Also see Devine's (243) recent review of 12 research studies pertaining to reading and listening.

Relationship Between Listening and Other Variables

Is there a relationship between listening and speaking skills? A study by Brilhart (115) failed to show a positive correlation between listening and speaking skills and led her to raise a question concerning the interdependence of speaking and listening skills as proposed by most textbooks. This is an area that needs more research, particularly with respect to the development of oral language.

Is listening skill related to intelligence, achievement, personality, family size, or study skills? Common among correlational studies have been investigations of listening and intelligence. Brown (122), Condon (193), Jackson (500), and Winter (1143) discovered significant correlations between listening and intelligence, while Ross (885) indicated a strong relationship between listening and verbal intelligence. A failure to find a significant relationship between listening comprehension and intellectual ability was reported by Ernest (298), although she did discover a positive relationship between listening comprehension and academic achievement. Brown (122) concluded from his study that listening is more closely related to achievement than to reading, and that listening correlates with teachers' grades, but not with scores on achievement tests.

Fawcett (314) reached a different conclusion, finding that report card grades in reading, language, and arithmetic are not as closely related to listening ability as scores obtained on standardized achievement tests in each of these respective areas. A positive relationship exists between listening and grade point averages in all school subjects, according to Condon (193). Legge (594) found language ability more highly related to scholastic achievement than to intelligence; and Winter (1143) noted a significant relationship between listening comprehension and total school achievement as measured by achievement tests. By holding mental ability constant, Anderson and Baldauf (18) found school achievement and listening to be low as measured by the STEP Listening Test.

Although studies of the relationship between listening and academic achievement are somewhat inconsistent as to the means employed in determining that achievement, it appears that listening plays an important role both in the scholastic ability and the achievement of students. This conclusion also was confirmed by Legge's study (594), in which listening proved to be a significant element in school achievement.

The relationship between personality and listening was the subject of a study by Kelly (547), who found that selected personality attributes, particularly emotional stability, were characteristic of the good listener. Jackson (500) pointed to a relationship between listening and personality and suggested that an individual's ability in using listening skills may be directly affected by his individual adjustment. Finally, Ross (885) found good listeners to be better adjusted personally and socially than poor listeners.

Winter's study (1143) uncovered both pronounced and moderate relationships between listening and language arts skills such as capitalization, grammatical usage, work study skills, spelling, and punctuation skills; results which indicate that listening skills presumably affect such learnings to a discernible extent.

In comparing listening abilities in families of five or more children with listening abilities in families of fewer than five, Jackson (500) noted significant differences in favor of smaller families. However, Brown's study (122) failed to show conclusive evidence of a relationship between listening and family size. He expressed the need for more accurate information explaining the reasons for relatively poor listening by children coming from large families.

Many of the studies cited above compared sex differences and listening ability. No significant differences between the sexes were reported by Brown (122), Condon (193), Fawcett (314), Jackson (500), or Legge (594). Differences favoring the girls over the boys in listening ability were identified by Winter (1143), while Lundsteen also (636) considered girls to be better critical listeners than boys.

Improving Listening

Many's (653) study attempted to determine whether visual or aural approaches were better in fostering learning. The results of his work with sixth graders led him to conclude that it is wiser to place emphasis on visual presentations than to concentrate on listening, since pupils seem to comprehend more by reading than by listening. According to Breiter (113), however, there was no significant difference between reading and listening during the instruction of sixth graders in social studies.

The use of reading or listening is not an "either-or" question, according to Lundsteen (636). She felt that there was a need for employing both reception modes, reading and listening, in instructional strategies. Fenwick (321) also suggested that aural and visual media should be combined in both individual and group settings to enhance meaningful learning for the slow learner.

Evaluating Listening

Buros' *Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook* (139) lists the Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test (for grades 9-13) and the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress: Listening Form 4 (for grades 4-14). The studies reported on listening evaluation tended to investigate the research utilization of these two most widely used standardized tests and to cover factors involved in the administration of these and other listening tests.

From the results of the study concerning the STEP Listening Comprehension Test (Form 4), Anderson and Baldauf (18) questioned the utilization of this test in its present form in a public school testing program as part of an overall standardized achievement battery. The construct validity and the reliability of the STEP Listening Comprehension Test (Form 4) and the Brown-Carlsen Listening Test were questioned by Kelly (548), who conjectured that the listening scores were actually a measure of listening as a unique factor or as a result of one or more factors such as intelligence or reading.

Bateman, Frandsen, and Dedmon (58) also urged caution in the interpretation of students' scores on Part E (Lecture Comprehension) of the Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test. Langholz (586) examined the Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test Form B, studying the relationship of listening test scores to test item difficulty.

Other evaluative commentaries of interest were done by Brooks and Hannah (120), Johnson and Frandsen (517), Wenger (1127), and Stodola (1025).

Those interested in newer types of listening tests are referred to two studies conducted by Dickens and by Orr. Dickens and Williams' study (245) revealed the potentialities of the "cloze procedure," a word-deletion technique, for measuring the comprehension of oral materials.

Orr and Graham (779) constructed a listening test (two forms) for use with disadvantaged junior high school boys for the purpose of identifying those with college potential; however, the researchers encountered the difficulty of being unable to identify content areas unique to their disadvantaged population for the test.

The need for the development of other measures for listening is apparent from the few tests available and in the criticisms of extant tests. Unpublished tests can be found in dissertations and theses, according to Russell (895), but many of these need to be reexamined and refined for further use.

Miscellaneous Studies in Listening

Farrow (313) measured listening attention in grades 1 through 6 and found close significant similarity in this area between fifth and sixth graders compared with fourth graders, suggesting that the fourth grade is transitional with special listening needs.

No negative relationship between television watching and academic ability was reported in Brown's study (125). He discovered that children who watch television appear to be better listeners than those who do not, although no relationship was found between the number of hours spent watching television and listening test scores. Likewise, Edinger (279) concluded that television is significant in developing *listening comprehension,* but that the same was not true for the development of *critical thinking.*

"Lessons" in listening may be effective in overcoming the effects of cultural deprivation, according to Van Valkenburg (1087).

Reviews of research studies in listening that the reader may find helpful are those by Duker (268), Duker and Petrie (270), Denby (238), and Petrie (812). The reader is also reminded of the availability of reproductions of documents from NCTE/ERIC on listening and the announcement of documents made available each month by ERIC in each issue of *Research in Education.*

Research is suggesting that listening, as Kelly stated (549:455), "is more than just a unitary skill, that it [is made up of] a complex of activities." Until that complex of activities is better understood, little is likely to take place in the classroom as to new materials and methods and as to the evaluation of "listening instruction."

Chapter Five

Mass Media and Language Arts Instruction

NELLIE MAY ROST

DURING recent years, a knowledge of mass media has become an integral part of the background needed by teachers who are concerned with language development and with communication skills. Since Marshall McLuhan (690) publicized man as a member of a retribalized society in a global village, even the general public has been increasingly aware of the impact of mass media on the world's cultures.

By 1970 there had appeared in the literature a number of articles which attempted to review (797), analyze (210), and discuss the implications of (117, 634, 960, 1046) "McLuhanism." Equally visible were discussions of the influence of the computer on man and descriptions of the effect of cybernetics (707, 1070). After reflecting on the electronic revolution, Farrell (311) editorialized that language arts teachers should assume responsibility for guiding it. "The revolution will continue," he said, and "what direction it takes depends in good part upon the wisdom and participation brought to it by those of us who profess to teach English because we care about men." The procedure here, however, seems less clear than the goal!

At least three aspects of writings in the mass communication field are of interest to the language arts teacher. These are: (a) the influence of mass media upon the learner and society, (b) the application of the technology of mass communication for instructional use, and (c) mass communication as content in the language arts curriculum.

The Growing Impact of Mass Media

Influences attributed to the communications revolution have been noted as factors in American culture (858), politics (512), and government (181). Smith (988) discussed the trend toward "simultaneousness," the habit of attending to several media at one time. Much attention also has been given to the cause and effect relationship of mass media and violence. As president of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, NEA, Vergis (1093), writing on violence in our country, said that ". . . maintaining a responsible mass media should be one of society's principal goals" (1093:803). Luecking (633) and Kilander (555) presented opinions as to the influence of the media, while Edgar Dale (214), long active in the field of communications, reprinted a series of essays from his *Newsletter* which may prove of interest to teachers wishing to explore the impact of various media on our life and times.

A note of caution with respect to media was issued by Deeves (226). In an article entitled "Inundation by Media," she warned that there is no such thing as a standardized child; therefore "conscientious educators need to give each child a chance for verbal expression" (226:545). Smith and Vander Meer (992), expressing a concern for education of the disadvantaged, stated that the media must reflect the needs of the whole culture.

To guide educators in thinking and studying the field of mass media, the Educational Policies Commission (281), shortly before it was discontinued, published a summary of insights and investigations into communication research which included the implications of communication developments in education. Additional research was reviewed by Dickens and Williams (246) in the AERA's *Review of Educational Research.*

The nature of the impact. Krippner (570) studied the influence of mass media on vocational preference of junior high school pupils. Surprisingly, less than one-fourth of the 351 pupils surveyed cited mass media as an influence. The most noticeable influences were in the areas of professional sports and performing arts. In studying patterns of political learning, Jennings (512) surveyed mass media usage in public affairs and politics among high school seniors and their parents. It was learned that, by the end of elementary school, most children have made some use of media for the purposes studied. Regular usage becomes widespread during high school and continues into the adult years.

Gerson (372) found two family-school social contexts among adolescents in the San Francisco Bay area which appeared likely to lead to socialization as a result of exposure to mass media. One was a context in which the adolescent was integrated in neither the family nor the school. The second context was one in which the adolescent was integrated in his family, but not in the informal system of the school. More Negroes than whites were influenced by media as a socialization agency.

A linear trend associated with advancing grade levels was found by Rush (894), who studied fifth through ninth graders in regard to the influence of friends versus that of parents in selecting mass media contacts. As children mature, they apparently draw away from parental influence in selecting programs.

Student exposure to communications media while in grades 1 through 12 in two counties in West Virginia was analyzed by Barrows (56). The greatest amount of time was given to televiewing, with homework second, book reading third, and listening fourth. Less time was devoted to reading newspapers and magazines and very little to reading comic books and attending movies. Children who spent appreciable time in televiewing did not always neglect other activities. Top favorites among television programs were those that involved either violent action, or comedy, or both.

Children's preferences for books, magazines, and newspapers. Norvell (761) repeated a study he originally conducted in 1936 to determine changes in preference in periodicals among students in grades 3 through 6. Of the top 15 magazines of interest in the 1962 study, 7 were adult publications. *Popular Mechanics* and *Boy's Life* were ranked high on the two studies by the boys, while *American Girl* was still a favorite 25 years later among the girls. *National Geographic* rated first in interest of both boys and girls in 1962 and was second in 1936. In light of other research done by the author, he suggested that there had been a loss of interest in periodicals in the 25-year period reviewed.

Motion pictures. PTA leaders of California were surveyed by George (371) to determine their attitudes toward children's viewing motion pictures and television. A substantial majority favored family drama, entertainment cartoons, children's programs, and family Westerns for children's viewing. Predictably, the horror, crime, and adult-type dramas were considered unsuitable. Parents observed that their children learned both good and bad habits, expressions, and ideas from viewing. Taylor (1055) evaluated motion pictures adapted from children's books.

Radio. A recent development in radio is programming for the black community. The field has grown from one station beaming its programs at Negroes in 1947 to 108 programming for them in 1968 (215).

Television. A *Time* article (1071) recently caricatured "Video Boy": "He doesn't do anything. He just sits there, sucks his thumb, and stares at the tube" (1071:54). Actually, by age 12 the "average" young televiewer watches programs 25 hours a week. Two-thirds of the time he is watching so-called adult shows. Morris (725), in writing about the young viewer, described TV as an "electronic baby-sitter." An English television study was reported by Halloran (426), who indicated that there was a "lack of conclusive evidence which might be able to throw light on some of the matters which appear to cause so much concern" (426:11).

The purpose of a study conducted by Howland (480) was to explore the uses elementary school children make of commercial television and to determine the relationships between these uses and social acceptance by one's peers. Her results indicated:

1. A higher percentage of socially unaccepted subjects chose "watching television" as the activity they enjoyed most when they were compared with socially accepted subjects.
2. Of the TV audience viewing the videotube between 5 and 7 p.m., a greater percentage were socially unacceptable.
3. Socially accepted subjects spent a significantly smaller percentage of their waking hours watching television than did the unaccepted subjects.

Nelson (745) found no significant differences in his study of superior high school graduates when he compared television viewing and selected personal characteristics.

Research by Slater (980) was based on 500 third graders who kept televiewing logs for a two-week period. Among the findings:

1. Boys spent more time viewing television than did girls.
2. The average TV watching time was 3.25 hours per day or 23 hours per week.
3. There was a highly significant correlation between the amount of time spent televiewing and socioeconomic status.
4. The variables, school achievement, reading, arithmetic achievement, and intelligence, showed a negative correlation with TV consumption for all

groups except village students. The findings concerning TV and spelling were inconclusive.

Another dissertation reported the relationship between the television viewing habits of fifth grade children and their scholastic achievement. LaBlonde (573) found a positive relationship between achievement in work-study skills and in the extent of televiewing, but few other differences among achievement groups were noted.

Teachers are likely to be interested in recent data as to the influence of television on vocabulary development. Britt (116), for instance, ascertained that various types of "information shows" had more potential for building vocabulary than did entertainment fare. Data compiled by Mason (660) indicated that children more quickly recognized words which were shown and pronounced simultaneously. Poor readers seemed to learn fewer words from television than did good readers. Some kindergarten children learned to identify printed words. TV also sometimes led to some misinformation.

In an attempt to answer a number of questions as to the effect of home televiewing on school children, Gray (396) made a study of and summarized the research.

An extensive and still interesting study made over 12 years ago was conducted by Schramm and associates (926) and subsequently published as *Television in the Lives of Our Children.* This book summarizes data collected in 11 studies made between 1958 and 1960. Involved were 5,991 students, 1,958 parents, several hundred teachers, officials, and other knowledgeable persons in 10 representative communities in the United States and Canada.

Paul Witty (1146, 1147) studied the viewing habits of children in the Chicago area for more than 15 years. Briefly, some of his findings were:

1. The amount of average viewing time has changed very little during the 15-year period, 1949 to 1965.
2. Elementary school pupils viewed a variety of programs, including many which involved fantasy.
3. Movie going and radio listening have declined by about 50 percent among juveniles since 1950.
4. Only a few pupils reported that their parents counsel them regularly in the selection of TV programs.
5. About half the pupils indicated that television was of help in their school work.
6. Reading is a little more extensive than in the pre-TV era.

7. Little relationship exists between the amount of televiewing and a pupil's academic achievement.

Instructional Technology

In addition to the social and psychological influences of mass media, the literature deals with the use of mass communication technology for instructional purposes. Stark (1014), writing in the *Phi Delta Kappan,* pointed out that "communication of information on the new technology remains a fundamental problem that must be resolved before our burgeoning communication technology can be applied effectively to education" (1014:198). Descriptions of multi-media machines by Leslie and Garner (599) and a survey of developments in instructional technology by McIntyre (686) present helpful information. Lewis (605) has prepared an overview of the application of technology for instructional use.

Learners' responses to media input. Several studies deal with the use of media as a source of stimuli for children. Bourisseau (101) elicited associations for verbal stimuli, pictorial stimuli, and a combination of both for Negro and white children. More sensory responses were elicited by printed words than by pictures; however, pictorial stimuli were clearly superior to words in eliciting specific, less abstract responses. Deno (239) also used verbal and pictorial stimuli in examining processes underlying perception. He found, with undergraduates, that pictures generally facilitated the learning of language equivalents. Anderson's (21) investigation of statements equated in content and difficulty, but presented in various media, indicated that each medium evoked different connotative meanings. A dissertation by Skinner (976) reported a study of individual differences in susceptibility to persuasive messages presented in print, recordings, and motion pictures. No significant difference was found among the three.

Educational television has been widely adopted. Gogo (386) studied the teacher-pupil perceptions regarding its use. Significant relationships were found between the following teacher characteristics and a favorable attitude toward educational television:

1. Degree of home viewing
2. Participation in the decision to use educational television
3. Perceiving educational television as a means to improve instruction
4. Perceiving that television affords greater opportunity for recognition of individual differences

5. Perceiving educational TV as a means to evaluate student achievement
6. Degree to which teachers prepare for the educational television lesson
7. Perceiving educational television as providing student experiences not otherwise possible.

Significant relationships were found between the following student characteristics and a favorable attitude toward educational TV: age, frequency of participation in extracurricular activities, degree of previous exposure to educational television, placement of students in science and mathematics classes, participation in the decision to use educational television in the classroom, and having a teacher who possesses favorable attitudes toward educational television.

A comprehensive report of research in instructional television was prepared by Chu and Schramm (179). These researchers concluded, from substantial evidence, that television can be an efficient tool in learning and teaching. Evidence favored the integration of television into other instruction, simplicity rather than "fanciness," emphasis on the basic requirements of good teaching, introduction of the medium so as to minimize resistance, and testing and revision of the program.

Instructional media and the language arts. The impact of media on the language arts is increasing, if one judges by the research published in recent years. An entire issue of *Audiovisual Instruction* (41), for example, was devoted to audio-visual instruction and the language arts. Denby (237) prepared an NCTE/ERIC report on language arts instruction via audio-visual aids. Anderson (22) recommended the use of a variety of technological helps in an article in *Elementary English.*

A review of research findings related to the use of audio-visual aids in reading instruction was made by Weintraub (1123), and the computerized typewriter for early reading instruction was discussed by Martin (657). The successful use of 8mm loop films with underachievers in reading was reported by Riddick and Estacio (868), while Matteoni (662) experimented with TV cartoon programs and related materials in a language-experience approach in initial reading with culturally deprived children. She found this to be an effective approach for use with first grade boys.

Television has been used effectively in developing both listening skills and study skills. Edinger (279) found television to be a significant factor in developing skill in listening comprehension. Similar results were reported by Purdom (850) at the fourth grade level and by Neidt (742), who used videotaped lectures with university students.

Ways of utilizing teachers with special skill and facility in modern language instruction have included the telephone and television. Smith (990) used amplified telelecture equipment with sixth graders. The experiment suggested that it is possible to enrich and expand learning through the telelecture when a teacher cannot be present in the classroom. Shepherd (948) compared the achievement of aural recognition of Spanish with primary pupils, some of whom received instruction by radio and others by television. The differences between the achievement scores of the two groups were not significant in five of the six classes.

Eight model activities based upon the features of the overhead projector, slide projector, and teletrainer were created by Seng (937) for Spanish instruction. Motion pictures were used by Levinson (602) with junior high students to study the effects of film versions of certain short stories on responses to the stories. Film viewing, either before or after reading, improved responses.

An American literature course for the eleventh grade was taught in Detroit on television. White (1131) made a case study of the program and felt the course was equal to the best of English courses in any given high school. A videotaped program on the English language also was produced and used in the Minneapolis, Minnesota, Public Schools. Kemp and Sunde (551) reported that over 50 percent of all seventh grade teachers of English in the school system rated the series either very helpful or generally effective. A remedial English course developed at the University of Houston was appraised in a study by Dorough (260). This programmed instruction approach was apparently more effective than the traditional lecture instruction.

Hurst and Singh (495) devised an electronically operated audiovisual self-teaching procedure for speech improvement. They concluded that, even after a single session, individuals with heavy foreign accents, substandard speech patterns, or varying levels of speech competence can be expected to show substantial improvement in the intelligibility and general merit of their speech.

Teaching About Mass Media

In recent years communications media have been not only aids to learning but also objects of study. A growing body of writings (472, 475, 598, 795) recommends the inclusion of units on mass media in the secondary curriculum. Several articles (102, 496, 714, 845) report on techniques that have been used successfully.

The study of film has received special attention in the literature. Articles by Polito (837) and Craig (204) recommended the study of this medium as an art form. Selby (936) made a chronological study of the teaching uses of film in American secondary schools. He found film was seldom treated as an art form of importance comparable to literature. Manchel (651) reached the following conclusions in his study of film literature as a resource study for secondary school English teachers:

1. Film can be regarded as a new form of literature.
2. The value of film goes beyond the realm of entertainment.
3. Educators should recognize that there is a need for teaching about film in colleges and secondary schools.
4. There are now available materials for effective film teaching.

Mass communication courses for college students were studied by Cox (203) and Donnelly (257). Cox surveyed freshman composition courses and found that a number of schools already include the study of mass communication in their curricula. Donnelly described and evaluated a general education course and concluded that the specific study of communication media has a natural place in the English curriculum and that special attention to media in schools is likely to be the most effective way of raising standards of audiences.

In summary, mass media and communication skills seem likely to grow in importance. Since education has among its challenges the need to develop discriminating consumers of mass media, surely it is important that the language arts teacher become informed as to the impact, applications, and research of mass communication.

Chapter Six

Classroom Applications of Reading Research

THE present section, longest in the monograph, includes research from both the elementary and secondary school. Material on the secondary school also includes some general research reports with a bearing on elementary school practices.

A somewhat startling statement was made by Robert Karlin (539: 386), who asserted that ". . . a comparatively small number of our youth receive systematic instruction in reading. . . ." He was referring to reading at the secondary level, and research suggests that the problems of reading disability beyond grade 6 are, indeed, serious ones. The difficulty of these problems is apparently aggravated by the belief of some secondary level English teachers that the elementary school is the place to learn to read. After that young adolescents should simply "read to learn."

In the following pages attention is directed first to the status of secondary school reading instruction, then to physiological and psychological data, and finally to studies of interest, comprehension, reading improvement, and individual differences among young adolescents.

Part 1. The Status of Secondary Reading Research

Molly Ransbury Wysocki

State surveys. Kentucky was the location of Ramsey's (853) study of reading achievement in grades 4 and 8. Over one-half of the public school pupils in these grades were given the California and the Metropolitan Achievement Tests in the fall and spring. Since relatively small gains were made in eighth grade scores, Ramsey hypothesized that the results might mean that reading instruction should be continued at the secondary (grades 7-12) level. Another Kentucky study by Peyton and Below (820) focused on the need for high schools to provide continuous reading instruction. This time 95 secondary principals were questioned. All of the respondents felt that some type of methodical reading program was desirable. The preferences were 94.5 percent for a developmental program, 92.7 percent for a corrective program, 69.5 percent for a remedial program, and 50.5 percent for a combination of all three programs.

Cooper's (196) comparison of reading achievement levels of 30,000 of Georgia's Negro and white children, grades 4 through 12, indicated that the Negro children evidenced a mean achievement comprehension deficit of 1.2 grade levels in grade 4 and a 5.3 grade level deficit by grade 12. The grade level lag of the white children was 0.2 in grade 7 and 2.2 in grade 12. Cooper concluded that this increase in achievement lag evidenced by both ethnic groups is a strong argument to support the need for sustained, sequential reading instruction throughout the secondary school years.

Wisconsin teachers were the respondents to a questionnaire devised by Otto (786). The categories "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," and "strongly disagree" were used.

Strong *agreement* was stated in response to the following statements:

1. Teaching of reading skills can be incorporated into content area courses.
2. Any secondary school teacher who assigns reading should also teach his students how to read.
3. Teaching reading is a necessary and legitimate part of teaching any content courses in secondary school.

Strong *negative* reaction appeared in response to:

1. In secondary school the teaching of reading should be the responsibility of the reading teacher only.

2. Only remedial reading should be included in the secondary school program.

3. Teaching of reading takes all of the fun out of teaching at the secondary school level.

In a study of California teachers, Graham (394) found that, of the 303 schools from which a 35-item questionnaire was returned, 78 percent had introduced reading programs within the past five-year period. Seventy-two percent of these had used federal funds in establishing such programs. However, only 25 percent of the reporting schools stated that they had a plan of continuous reading instruction for grades K-12.

A cautiously optimistic note concerning secondary school reading programs in the Upper Midwest was sounded by Martin (658). Secondary reading programs in 135 schools located in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, North Dakota, and South Dakota were polled through a questionnaire technique. This survey (a replication of a 1962 study) indicated that reading programs had increased and improved. Two encouraging findings were: (a) that there was a 12 percent increase in the number of institutions offering organized reading instruction, and (b) that remedial programs were more widespread than in 1962. Much of the impetus for this shift in focus was credited to federal funding for reading.

Research summaries. In 1969 Karlin (539) reviewed several research studies and concluded that there existed in secondary schools a widespread belief that responsibility for teaching reading belongs only to the elementary school. Furthermore, there was a lack of well-prepared secondary personnel for directing and staffing reading programs.

Moore's (723) review of reading research in the content fields led him to state that if the multiplicity of reading problems confronting schools were to be resolved, it was imperative for both teachers and administrators to become acquainted with techniques for developing efficient, creative reading habits that would serve students throughout their lives. Moore also contended that "... all teachers can, to some extent, be involved in the teaching of reading, [and] *some* must be involved to a very high degree" (723:708).

Gunn (415), after reviewing reading research relevant to the teaching of English, proposed that our present educational dilemma was a twofold one: (a) there was a need for English teachers to teach reading as well as the skills necessary to read literature, and (b) available English teachers lacked a reading background for accomplishing this feat.

Miscellaneous status reports. Applebee and Squire (27) attempted to discover the amount of time English teachers spend instructing students *how* to read literature. They found in grade 10 that less than 5 percent of instructional time was devoted to teaching reading, and in grade 12 the figure was less than 3 percent. It was concluded that teachers presumably expected that students would become discerning readers of literature merely from reading.

Another study of high school English programs was conducted by Applebee (26). The results indicated that English class time was apportioned in the following percentages:

Literature instruction	52.2
Language	13.5
Composition	15.7
Speech	4.9
Reading	4.5

One is led to infer that reading instruction was considered to be one of the two least important aspects of the high school English program.

Home Environment as an Influence on Reading

The broken home. Kelley, North, and Zingle (545) compared 131 children from broken homes with a like number who had intact family backgrounds. There was no significant difference in the mean reading achievement between these two groups. It was worthy of note, however, that the *time* of the home breakup seemed to have some relationship to reading achievement. If the breakup occurred during the primary school years, the child's reading achievement was more often hampered.

Family mobility. Snipes (995) asserted that individuals who move generally do so because of factors relating to sex, education, occupation, age, and intelligence. He found no significant difference between the reading achievement of the children of mobile adults and that of the offspring of other less mobile families.

Wickstrom (1136) also investigated pupil mobility and school achievement. His subjects were 1,185 eighth graders who had moved into the school system, remained in the school system, or moved within the school system. Pupils who had moved once or twice within the school system scored higher on a standardized reading test than did all other groups.

Maternal behavior and siblings. Della-Piana and Martin (233) compared the mother-daughter interrelationships of 10 overachievers with those of 10 underachievers and determined that mothers of overachievers showed a significant difference in the positive affect and amount of warmth they displayed toward their daughters.

The family position of the learner and its relationship to reading achievement for 300 good and 300 poor readers was investigated by Otto (787).

At the sixth grade level a significant difference was found to favor the oldest child or an only child. However, when all readers were considered, only the oldest child could be used as a reliable guide for the *prediction* of reading achievement.

Other environmental factors. Ketcham (554) found that the following home background factors were related to reading achievement for 582 students in grade 10: (a) mother's use of the library, (b) the number of newspapers and the quality of magazines in the home, and (c) the nature of the father's job.

Another investigation of the environmental influence of parents was conducted by Napoli (737). Factors related to reading achievement included the intriguing discovery that parents having a *Roget's Thesaurus* in the home also used their influence in choosing reading materials for their children, encouraged them to read, discussed reading material in the home, helped with homework, urged them to use the library, and urged them to practice the habit of magazine readership. (Perhaps a foundation should fund a nationwide distribution of the *Thesaurus!*)

Hughes and Willis (482) determined that parents who were professed "wide-readers" tended to have offspring who had developed this same trait. In the same vein, Watson (1115) reported that low achieving dropouts came from unstable homes in which parents were not inclined to value education highly. One is led to conclude from these four studies that school reading success almost certainly is mediated by parents' attitudes, helpfulness, and reading habits.

Physiological Studies

Few studies in the area of physiology and reading at the junior and senior high school level have been reported in the past few years. Furthermore, the two cited here seem to be contradictory. However, it should be noted that one deals with speed and vocabulary and the other with vocabulary and comprehension. Also, different instruments were used to measure reading improvement.

Singer (965) studied the relationship between sex differences and reading achievement. He stated that sex differences were more marked in the early formative years. At the junior high level, girls retained an advantage over boys on speed of reading and vocabulary development. Earlier research indicated that this edge began as early as grade one.

Sinks and Powell (967) also investigated sex as a factor. They stated that "... no generality of relationship as to reading achievement with respect to reading vocabulary and reading comprehension may be made on the basis of . . . sex for the population of this study" (967:69).

Psychology and Reading

Characteristics of "good" and "poor" readers. Zimmerman and Allebrand (1167) surveyed standardized personality test scores for a group of 71 "poor" and 82 "good" readers. The "poor" reader was described as less self-reliant, less aware of his personal worth and freedom, and more likely to display symptoms of withdrawal.

Sawyer (913) found that the "poor" reader evidenced inferior auditory memory as well as poor abstract attention on mental tests.

Henderson, Long, and Ziller (448) asserted that handicapped readers display a high degree of dependency; therefore it might be expected that this group would tend to be at a disadvantage when seeking and evaluating information, and in making decisions relevant to selected information.

Another characteristic widely attributed to reading failure in adolescents was their anxiety with regard to having the approval of other children. A study by Gregory (401) not only uncovered this fact, but also suggested that the trait may be a direct product of reading failure.

Harootunian (436) reported that, in testing 513 seventh and eighth grade subjects, the results strongly supported the conclusion that the thinking abilities of judgment, evaluation, and conceptual foresight are highly related to the reading process.

Smith's (987) "good" and "poor" reader study focused on purposeful reading. Fifteen "good" and 15 "poor" twelfth grade readers were given tasks related to reading for details and general impressions. There was an overlap in IQ for these two groups, and the "good" and "poor" readers also were somewhat similar in IQ. The "good" readers displayed greater success in reading for details, adjusting reading procedures to the two stated purposes, and formulating high quality responses.

The "good" and "poor" readers' approach to short story reading was investigated by Strang and Rogers (1029). The two groups evidenced the common characteristics of:

1. Confusion of theme with moral
2. Desire to improve their reading
3. Modification of interpretation of the story after an elapse of time.

The samples differed in favor of the "good" with respect to the students':

1. Variety of approaches to the reading material
2. Ability to report reading processes
3. Grasp of literal and implied meanings
4. Amount of interest in reading.

A deduction that might be made from these research findings is that at least some of the difference between the "good" and the "poor" readers is not so much one of intelligence per se as it is one of attitude and perceptual capability.

Interest and Reading

Studies by Vaughn (1089) and Whitman (1135) revealed that high school students select books that aid them in attitude formation and in information gathering. Boys as a group preferred books containing excitement, suspense, adventure, action, and humor, whereas girls enjoyed stories involving love, sadness, home, and mystery.

A group of 262 eleventh graders was polled by Gallo (368) in an attempt to inventory their free reading interests. The average number of books read for pleasure by students in this group during a 10-month period was 13; the range was from 0 to 50. The students preferred light fiction and true stories. The four favorite books, mentioned in order of frequency, were *Gone with the Wind*, *The Catcher in the Rye*, *1984*, and *To Kill a Mockingbird*. The main sources mentioned for inspiring the student to read a particular book were friends and family. Teachers ranked a low sixth on this list.

Motives for reading stated by high school students were, in order of preference: (a) recreational, (b) informational, and (c) aesthetic, according to the results of a questionnaire devised by Emans and Patyk (288).

No relationship was discovered between the rating of news reading interests and the reading achievement scores of 381 ninth grade boys in a study conducted by Clarke (183). It was revealed that boys were inclined toward reading about science, speed, violence, and teen news and that they were disinclined toward reading about public affairs.

Comprehensibility and Rate

Comprehensibility. Mathematics textbooks for grades 8 through 12 were closely examined by Wiegand (1137). Through the use of the Dale-Chall readability formula and several standardized reading achievement tests, it was concluded that the median readability levels of the texts were above the average reading levels of the students.

The field of history was scrutinized by Hallam (423), who wrote historical questions scored on the basis of Piaget's scale for operational thinking. It was cautiously concluded that a mental age of approximately 16.5 is necessary for initial "formal stage" thinking about history.

The relative difficulty of physics and chemistry texts in statewide use in Minnesota was evaluated by Jacobson (505). Rather than using a readability formula, Jacobson simply requested that the students underline unknown vocabulary. The least popular physics text proved to be the most difficult in terms of readability. There was no evidence to suggest that reading difficulty rather than content was considered in the selection of such books for statewide adoption.

The difficulty level of literature anthologies was assessed by Aukerman (43). He concluded that there is *no* literary anthology that can be independently read by the lowest 25 percent of the secondary students.

It would seem, on the basis of the aforementioned studies, that we are using textbooks in our secondary schools that are "unreadable" for many of our students.

Reading rate. Sixty-one tenth grade students were compared by

Dummett and Urbas (271) with respect to reading speed and comprehension. The experimental group was trained for two sessions per week in comprehension and in speed, using pacers, films, and the Controlled Reader, whereas the control group was taught content only. At the end of treatment, the experimental group read 188 words per minute faster than the control group, with little difference in comprehension.

Another study by Nasman (738) reported the results for ninth grade students in a six-week reading improvement program using pacers, multi-level materials, films, and library books. The results of this study compare favorably with Dummett and Urbas' findings. Nasman tested his groups immediately after the treatment period and again six months later. The experimental group surpassed the control group to a highly significant degree immediately following the instructional period. Six months later the experimental group still excelled, although not to the extent they had previously. Nasman suggested that a periodic reinforcement technique might be desirable to ensure lasting effects of pacing training.

While investigating the effectiveness of four methods of increasing reading rate, comprehension, and flexibility, Braam and Berger (106) compared the tachistoscope, the Controlled Reader, controlled pacing, and paperback scanning. The most effective gains in rate were developed with the paperback scanning method. However, all devices produced significant gains in rate, with no adverse effect on comprehension.

Another study by Gelzer and Santore (370) of 159 ninth graders seemed to support the Braam and Berger findings. However, a follow-up test 11 months later revealed that the only group to retain significant rate improvement levels was the group using the Controlled Reader. It was suggested that perhaps the Controlled Reader had altered the number of eye-fixation patterns of the readers.

There would seem to be some research evidence that the rate of reading *can* be increased without necessarily decreasing the level of comprehension.

Reading Improvement

Vocabulary development. Jackson and Dizney (501) inferred from their data that the *learning* of words does not significantly influence *comprehension*. Their experimental group was exposed to 27 weeks of intensive vocabulary instruction using the Harbrace Vocabulary Workshop as well as glossaries, while the control group was given no guidance in vocabulary development. Although these two different treatments did not influence comprehension, the experimental group did evidence statistically superior knowledge of vocabulary.

SQ3R. A comparison was made by Donald (255) of 31 seventh grade experimental group pupils trained in the SQ3R[1] technique, with a like number of control pupils given no training in this approach. The only significant difference was that on teacher-constructed tests the experimental group made significantly greater gains in geography and history.

Studies of "Slow" and "Talented" Readers

The slow learner. In the book *Exceptional Children and Youth*, Cruickshank commented that "The slow learners are the highest intellectual group of retarded children and are the largest in number. They form the 15 to 17 percent of the school population that cannot quite 'keep up.' . . . [they] are essentially normal in their emotional, social, physical, and motor development" (209:391). In the same context, Coston and Merz (199) noted that one of the greatest hazards in dealing effectively with the slow learner is that of teacher overexpectation. They concluded that it is essential for the classroom teacher to learn ways of adjusting difficulty level to the capabilities of the learner.

Psychological principles of learning that should be applied to teaching remedial or developmental reading students, according to Karlin (537), are:

1. Proper diagnosis of problems, followed by a prescribed program built on the strengths of the learner, with an eventual focus on weaknesses
2. Reinforcement through success
3. Guided learning experiences
4. Sequential, meaningful learning
5. A learning climate of patience, understanding, and firmness
6. Transfer of reading skills to a multiplicity of reading experiences
7. Differentiated instruction programs based on students' needs
8. High interest content.

The academically talented. Krippner and Herald (572) would most probably decry the common statement, "He's so bright that he will learn in spite of his teacher." Their study indicated that the explanation for reading difficulties among the academically talented is closely akin to that for slow learners, because disturbed neurological organization, neurotic tendencies, poor visual skills, and unfavorable educational experiences are common causal factors in both groups.

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[1] SQ3R is an acronym for *S*urvey, *Q*uestion, *R*ead, *R*ecite, and *R*eview.

One of the more interesting enrichment programs for the gifted (IQ above 130, grades of "A" and "B") was reported by Sparks (999). A special humanities seminar dealing with readings in philosophy, discussion of world affairs, and training in advanced reading and study skills was offered to these students. No grades were given, although credit was offered to 15 or 20 students at each grade level. Sparks felt this program developed deeper and broader comprehension powers for the participating students.

A safe assumption that might be made from reviewing the studies concerning the reading of special groups is that there is a commonality of problems that crosscuts both the slow learner and the academically gifted but retarded reader. It would appear indefensible to assume that all students will have an equal opportunity to learn simply because they are exposed to the same teacher, materials, or methods.

Research in junior high and secondary reading tends to imply an inability on the part of upper division teachers to teach reading as well as they present other subject matter. However, it is encouraging to note secondary teachers' efforts to become more aware of their responsibility for sequential reading instruction. The problem as of 1970 is one of how to accomplish this. Presumably our high school teachers must be prepared in and exposed more extensively to techniques for teaching reading during their preservice and in-service experience.

Part 2. Reading Research in Elementary Education

THOMAS R. SIPALA

Judging by the distribution of research undertaken between 1963 and 1970, no other area of the language arts receives more attention than does reading—and most investigations are concerned with children or with early adolescents in grade 8 or below.

In their publication, *The First R: The Harvard Report on Reading in Elementary Schools*, Austin and Morrison (43A) have taken note of the fact that a major portion of studies is concerned either with one or with a combination of the following topics:

1. Introduction of new methods and materials
2. The adoption of grouping plans which attempt to reduce the range of abilities
3. Use of audio-visual aids and devices to improve instruction
4. Identification of physical, psychological, and sociological factors which influence children's reading.

It is under these topic headings that reading research in elementary education is presented here. Since it attracted much attention in the 1960's, particular heed is given to research which involved the culturally disadvantaged.

Methods and Materials

Comparative studies. Meshing or correlating other language arts skills with the reading program appears to be a promising practice in view of results from two studies. The first of these was done by Stauffer and Hammond (1016), who compared the effectiveness of a broad "language arts" approach as distinct from a straight "basic reader" approach to first grade reading instruction. Their study extended over a two-year interval. The experimental group received instruction with basic readers, supplemented by self-selected library materials, creative writing experiences, and practice in other skills involving communication. Significantly better scores were made by the experimental group in word reading, in paragraph meaning, and in spelling.

In an investigation made among students from urban areas and from three socioeconomic levels, Vilscek *et al.* (1096) compared the use of an "integrated" experience approach to communication with the use of a coordinated basal language arts approach. Those students involved with the "integrated" experience approach achieved significantly higher mean scores on word meaning, paragraph meaning, vocabulary, and word study on the Stanford Achievement Test.

Growing interest in the science of linguistics as it related to reading instruction led Schneyer (922) to study the achievement of first grade children taught by a linguistic approach. He compared these children with a group taught by a basal reader approach. The result was inconclusive since the raw score means of a linguistic reading test were high for the linguistic group, but the raw score means for the basal reader group were higher on four of the Stanford Achievement Battery subtests.

Individualized reading. The individualized approach—although no longer novel—has been of interest to a number of researchers and has been employed in many different ways. Three studies comparing the individualized approach with a basal reader program were located. One was done by Johnson (521) and two were done by Spencer (1000, 1001). At the completion of grade 1, and again at the end of grade 3, Johnson compared the reading achievement of the students taught by an individualized approach and those taught by the basal reader approach. Measurement at the end of the first grade and again at the end of the third grade indicated significantly higher mean scores in favor of the experimental or individualized group.

In Spencer's first study, she compared an individualized and a basal reader program in a rural community. The so-called individualized program stressed systematic phonic instruction. The Gilmore Reading Test was administered and the results favored the individualized approach. Rate was the only factor for which there was no significant difference. Spencer's second study, which measured students in an individualized program at the end of second grade, led her to reach similar conclusions.

The disadvantaged reader. The disadvantaged reader became the object of close scrutiny during the 1960's, although his problems need continued attention and study. Chall and Feldmann (166) undertook an investigation which analyzed the various methods teachers of disadvantaged children employed when using basal readers, and the influence of teacher personality. The effects of such methods were studied in relation to subsequent differences in children's reading achievement. Factors which proved to have a relationship to reading scores were: (a) teacher competence, (b) a "thinking approach" to learning, (c) appropriateness of the level of difficulty of the reading lessons, and (d) the use of a sound-symbol approach to reading. Chall and Feldmann noted that the teacher is an important factor in the success of any program, but that further study was needed with regard to the characteristics of successful reading teachers.

Apparently many disadvantaged children continue to be taught by traditional basal reader approaches. Criscuolo (207) questioned the effectiveness of the use of conventional basal reader methods with culturally disadvantaged children, while Harris and Serwer (437) studied the disadvantaged first grade child in relation to these approaches. Several methods were contrasted in the Harris-Serwer inquiry: a basal reader emphasizing skills, basal readers plus a phonovisual method, and a language experience approach made in conjunction with audio-visual aids. Comprehension and pupil attitude proved to be significantly higher with the group involved in the basal reader skills approach.

McCanne (673) was another investigator who studied various approaches to first grade reading in English with samples of slow, disadvantaged children and other children from Spanish-speaking homes. Again, the groups receiving the highest level of reading achievement were those taught by a basal reader approach.

While research cited above appears to favor conventional basal reader instruction for the disadvantaged, the interested reader will wish to seek out the primary research sources to determine the procedures and the qualifications noted by the authors.

Reading and the i/t/a. The initial teaching alphabet (i/t/a) devised by Sir James Pitman has received considerable attention from researchers in the past few years. Downing (263) reported several conclusions based on studies conducted in England. Two of his studies led to similar findings: (a) those children involved with i/t/a progressed faster from the start and attained higher scores when tested with i/t/a material than did children in the control group, who were tested with materials written in traditional orthography (t.o.); (b) those children involved in i/t/a experienced a setback at the time of transition to t.o.

Another British study compared i/t/a with color story reading.

Results of this inquiry by Jones (524), for all levels of achievers, favored the color story over i/t/a for reading and for spelling.

Many studies have compared i/t/a with traditional orthography. Investigations completed by Bosma and Farrow (99), Chasnoff (169), Hahn (420), Mazurkiewicz (670), Verdun and Larson (1092), and Wapner (1109) concluded that various post-test achievement scores were significantly in favor of the i/t/a groups. Wiggins (1138) made a comparison of the i/t/a and t.o. methods using two matched groups for two consecutive years. The results here indicated no significant differences.

After a three-year period during which 299 children were involved, Fry (360) analyzed the results of i/t/a, of a Diacritical Marking System approach, and of t.o. to ascertain their influence on silent and oral reading. He, like Wiggins, found no significant differences.

Hayes and Wuest (442) conducted a longitudinal study comparing i/t/a with a basal reader program, with a basal reader program supplemented with phonics, and with a phonics approach. Their findings favored the phonic approach and were supported by significant differences in paragraph meaning, spelling, and word meaning.

To determine the effectiveness of i/t/a used with disadvantaged students, Holmes and Rose (469) compared them with a t.o. group. They found significant differences which favored the i/t/a group.

The S.R.A. Reading Laboratory. Experiments have also been conducted using the S.R.A. Reading Laboratory package. Waldrip (1102) investigated the use of the S.R.A. Laboratory as a supplement to a basal program. At the conclusion, Waldrip could not find any significant differences which would favor the inclusion of the S.R.A. Laboratory. Another study, undertaken in England by H. B. Pont (842), also investigated the use of the S.R.A. Reading Laboratory. In contrast to Waldrip's results, when the experimental and control groups were subjected to the reading lab, significant increases in their reading achievement were evident. Again, however, at the completion of an experimental period, no significant differences could be found between the two groups.

Programmed reading studies. In the area of programmed materials, the studies were quite different; hence it is necessary to report on a sampling of them individually. Some programmed materials are programmed for the *learner*, others are programmed for the *instructor*. Keisler and McNeil (544) attempted to teach the recognition of 40 words, employing a programmed technique. One group received instructions from a tape while the second group was directed orally to say the word. The children who received oral directions demonstrated statistically superior results to the "tape group."

Programmed tutoring was used with 400 kindergarten and first grade children. Ellson *et al.* (287) summarized the 10 studies employing this tutoring. They found that the use of programmed tutoring in conjunction with classroom teaching was more effective than either of these methods used alone.

Programmed materials have been used during independent reading time. Calder (145) was interested in the effect that this form of programming had upon the pupil's attitude toward reading. As a result, he developed self-instructional materials which an experimental group used during independent reading time. The experimental group later demonstrated a more favorable attitude toward reading, as indicated by an attitude measure, than did the controls. Both Burkott and Clegg (135) and Rodgers and Fox (878) compared the use of programmed material with the use of a basal reader. In the first study, no significant differences were found between the two groups for any measure. The Rodgers and Fox study, however, indicated that only on the Word Knowledge subtest of the Metropolitan Achievement Test did pupils who read programmed materials make significantly better scores.

Miscellaneous methods inquiries. Educators are increasingly demanding materials which are of a high interest level, yet have a low reading vocabulary. Jo M. Stanchfield (1013) studied the effect of high-interest materials on reading achievement in the first grade. Three ethnic groups were used as subjects: Mexican Americans, Negroes, and Caucasians. The experimental group demonstrated higher scores than the control group in each of the ethnic groups surveyed.

Another cluster of studies have concerned themselves with perceptual-motor training in relation to readiness and reading achievement. Two which deal directly with readiness were conducted by Jacobs (502) and by Rutherford (896). Jacobs attempted to evaluate the Frostig visual-perceptual training program. While his experimental groups scored higher than the control groups, the results were not significant. Rutherford's experimental group was involved in an 11-week play program which emphasized activities in laterality, directionality, accurate body image concepts, visual-kinesthetic matching, and binocular and monocular control. These activities apparently improved the readiness score of the experimental group. Lloyd (617) probed the effects of a visual-tactual training program on reading achievement and on mental maturity. The program was effective on nonlanguage mental maturity function but had no measurable effect on reading achievement of children in the experimental group.

Grouping for Reading Instruction

Mixed results from grouping research. Research associated with various methods or plans for grouping appears to have one central result running throughout. No matter what grouping plan was tested, it led to no significant discernible differences. Sister M. Marita (972), for instance, compared three organizational patterns (modified individualized, whole class, three-to-five group). While those children instructed in her whole-class situation scored better on the Word Meaning section of the Stanford Achievement Test than children in the three-to-five group plan, she concluded that no one grouping plan really had better results in all areas.

The following studies are concerned with some form of ability grouping for reading instruction and its effect upon reading achievement and were for the most part inconclusive:

Justman (532) was concerned with the relationship between class achievement in reading, ability grouping, and performance in beginning reading.

Berkun, Swanson, and Sawyer (72) were concerned with ability grouping in the intermediate grades. Their conclusion was that ability grouping appeared to have favorable results at grades three and five.

Balow and Curtin (47) compared one heterogeneous group and three homogeneous groups in regard to their reading comprehension scores. Grouping by intelligence, these authors concluded, does not significantly reduce the spread in achievement for any one skill area.

Balow and Ruddell (49) explored the effects of three types of grouping on achievement. The three groups were designated as (a) homogeneous, (b) heterogeneous, and (c) a cluster group. The last group was selected on the basis of ability rather than reading achievement scores. Again, no significant differences were found on subtests of word knowledge or reading which could be accounted for by the various grouping plans.

The Joplin plan, which involved a form of interclass grouping for reading instruction, was studied in grades 4 through 6 by Green and Riley (397). Their experimental group attained mean scores that were higher than those of the control group. However, when Anastasiow (14) compared a cross-grade grouping plan and a self-contained classroom, he found no significant differences between the two. Other grouping research of a conflicting or equivocal nature was reported by Nichols (754) and by Macdonald, Harris, and Mann (643). Balow (48) contended that smaller class size aided reading achievement for children, particularly at the readiness level.

Graded vs. nongraded situations. Some studies dealing with the nongraded versus the graded classroom in relation to reading showed significant differences in favor of the nongraded plan. One study by Jones, Moore, and Van Devender (523) and another by Machiele (645) led to the conclusion that significant differences did exist in favor of the nongraded program. The pool of research data was modified by the Oldridge and Williamson study comparing pupil achievement in reading vocabulary and comprehension in graded and ungraded classes, since the authors found no significant differences between the mean scores of the pupils.

Educational Media and Reading

Sipala (968) has reported in the *Indiana Reading Quarterly* on teaching machines and audio-visual aids available for instruction in reading, but relatively little research has been conducted to date in regard to the use of these aids. Jones and Van Why (525) studied the effects of tachistoscopic training upon reading achievement in the fourth and fifth grades. They compared reading rate and comprehension gains after a three-month period and found, paradoxically, that the experimental group in grade 4 demonstrated a gain in reading rate, whereas the group in the fifth grade did not. Scores from the Iowa Silent Reading Tests for comprehension showed there were no differences for either experimental or control groups.

In another study conducted by Warner (1112), audio-visual devices were used to prompt and to reinforce first graders in beginning reading instruction. The approaches utilized were a set of programmed materials plus a basal reader approach including three organizational plans. Upon administering the Gates Primary Reading Test, the authors found no differences between the groups. Cline (186) studied the use of films, filmstrips, records, slides, and pictures in developing reading vocabulary and comprehension with Spanish-speaking pupils. The study was conducted over a two-year period, after which the California Achievement Test and the Gilmore Reading Paragraphs were administered to determine growth. In this instance, experimental pupils had greater achievement scores in both areas tested than did the control group.

Physical, Psychological, and Sociological Factors

Sex and reading skills. A physical factor with which some research has been concerned is that of sex differences. For example, will children improve in reading if they are grouped by sex? This question was studied by both Wyatt (1157) and Tagatz (1048). Wyatt not only separated boys from girls, but employed various specialized instructional materials, including a linguistic approach. Tagatz compared reading achievement of students arranged homogeneously by sex with conventional groups in control classes. Both studies concluded that children learn to read equally well whether grouped by sex or heterogeneously grouped.

Parsley (800) investigated sex differences in achievement of under-, average-, and over-achieving students within five IQ groups in grades 4 through 8, and found that where differences occurred, they were usually in favor of girls. Research in grades 3 and 6 conducted by Wozencraft (1155) led to a similar deduction, particularly at the third grade level. Hirst (462) concluded that sex is a predictor variable for success in first grade reading achievement.

Family relationships. Family relationships influence the reading achievement of children. Keshian (553) found parents usually play an important role in encouraging the child to read by supplying the child with books and showing concern for their child's progress. Another interesting study by Mutimer, Loughlin, and Powell (736) dealt with family relationships of achieving and under-achieving readers. Here it was learned, among other things, that the achieving male usually identified with the father, whereas the achieving female usually identified with the mother. The under-achieving girls were generally found identifying with brothers and sisters.

What relationship does family position have to success in reading? Otto (787) found that the first child and the only child were usually good readers, whereas those children who were in the middle or at the end of a family were more often poorer readers. Peck, Zwerling, Rabban, and Mendelsohn (802) studied the relationship of family pathology to reading disability and, as might be anticipated, found that "reading failures" were from families in which there was a greater amount of pathology. Both the emotional problems within the child and pathological problems within the family were factors in a given child's inability to read.

The research cited is but a small part of the reports published since 1963. In reviewing it, one is constantly reminded of how difficult it is to find specific or concrete answers. As the reader undoubtedly has noted, when several studies could be located on a particular topic, the results as often as not tended to be limited, qualified, inconclusive, or in conflict. In addition, one is sometimes frustrated because the generalizations from a piece of research are, at best, valid only for the population studied and under given conditions.

What can be done to make research more meaningful? Wittick (1144) suggests that more research be done with all types of children and that studies be conducted over at least a five-year period. Surely more research is needed to explore the use of a combination of approaches to reading instruction. Above all, it would be desirable for reviewers if there were fewer but more definitive studies of our fascinating clients, America's boys and girls!

Chapter Seven

Handwriting

CHARLES R. CULP

THE printing press, tape recorder, telephone, photocopier, and computer probably have tended to reduce relatively the amount of handwritten material circulated in our society. At least until "micro-mini" versions of these communication tools are produced, however, handwriting promises to remain a necessary and important part of the school curriculum. Presently, however, there is a lack of agreement regarding the status of research pertaining to the second R. Some writers contend that there was a resurgence of research in the 1960's, while others are concerned about the lack of interest in handwriting. In any case, much current literature related to handwriting predominantly concerns itself with descriptions of existing programs, general discussion, and suggestions to teachers for improving the instructional program.

Yee and Personke (1163) say that most teachers are now more concerned with *what* children write rather than *how* it is written. At the same time, the frequently encountered request, "please type or print," reminds us that we need to be mindful of the need for better handwriting.

Reviews of Handwriting Research

Two comprehensive surveys of research were summarized by Anderson (15, 16). The first dealt with movement and quality in handwriting and the second with style and instructional practice. Otto and Anderson (790) reviewed the research in handwriting under the headings (a) the handwriting act, (b) the handwriting product, (c) graphology, (d) learning and instruction, and (e) teaching handwriting. For his part, Noble (758) reviewed research that generally related to commercial systems of handwriting, while less comprehensive but useful investigations were made by Horn (473), Marksheffel (655), and Petty and Burns (818).

Teaching Handwriting

More than 95 percent of the teachers responding to a national survey reported that they did teach handwriting (294), but a study by Greenblatt (400) indicated that handwriting as a subject ranked low in popularity with both teachers and students. Fieman (323) studied the attitudes of prospective teachers, student teachers, and supervising teachers. He found that all three groups had a favorable attitude toward methodically teaching handwriting, but the prospective and student teachers had a significantly more favorable attitude than did the supervising teachers. He also found that a significant correlation existed between teachers' handwriting ability and their attitudes.

Beginning handwriting instruction. At the master's level, Tawney (1054) did a brief, interesting thesis which reported that children performed better when using a ball-point pen than when using pencils. Teachers participating in the study also felt that the ball-point writing was faster, that papers were neater, and that the problem of erasing encouraged more thought before writing.

Furner (362) evolved a method of instruction for beginning handwriting which emphasized the development of perception by having children examine the letter formation process and then verbalize a description of the procedures. She compared the speed, quality, and formational errors of children taught by this program with those of a control group that used a commercial system that stressed copying as a means of instruction. The experimental system was found to be the more effective of the two means of instruction.

An analysis of the number and types of errors made by first grade children in copying upper and lower case manuscript letter forms was reported by Lewis (603). Three hundred fifty-four children copied manuscript letters in September and again in April following six months of methodical instruction in manuscript writing. Samples of children's free writing were also examined. Some of the findings were:

1. Children made the most errors in copying letters that are made in part below the line such as q, g, p, y, and j.
2. Letters least susceptible to errors were H, O, L, and I.

3. Improper size, incorrect relationship of parts, and incorrect relationship to line were the most frequent types of errors.

4. Boys made more errors than girls both before and after instruction.

5. After instruction the difference in errors between right- and left-handed children was not significant.

In a later article based on the same study, Lewis and Lewis (604) reported that the Draw-A-Man Test of Mental Maturity was an excellent predictor of success in beginning to write. The authors also presented a table of the manuscript alphabet arranged by order of difficulty.

Hildreth (458) advised teachers to provide informal writing experiences early in the first grade and to devote as much time to writing as to reading in beginning instruction. Enstrom (292) cautions against the exclusive use of a "functional" approach and recommends it be used as a support to more formal teaching.

Tagatz and others (1049) reported the results of a research venture designed to determine the effect of three different instructional approaches upon the handwriting performance of 80 third grade and 75 fourth grade pupils. The approaches compared were a *formal group* approach, a *formal individualized* program, and an *individualized diagnostic* approach. They found, in the third grade, that the most legible handwriting was produced by the students in the individualized diagnostic group. At the fourth grade level, the formal group showed the most legible handwriting. They found no significant differences in writing speed.

The report recommended that handwriting be individualized in the early grades, rather than in the middle grades as suggested by many commercial systems.

Boyle (104) investigated the effects of a diagnostic-remedial program in handwriting with children in grades 4, 5, and 6. A conclusion reached was that "Regardless of the time children spend in proofreading their handwriting, no gain in quality can be made unless they are instructed in specific errors which they must eliminate" (104:642).

Zaslow (1165) had normal and cerebral-palsied children write on the side of the body midline opposite from their normal position and found this procedure to be effective in correcting reversal problems in 63 percent of the normal subjects and in 79 percent of the brain-damaged subjects. Enstrom (296) has also made practical suggestions for preventing and solving reversal problems. Otto and McMenemy (791) also have devoted a chapter of their book to diagnostic and remedial work in handwriting.

A programmed course of study in manuscript and cursive handwriting was developed by Plattor (829). She reported that the use of programmed learning materials was more effective than conventional classroom teaching in increasing the proficiency of preservice teachers in providing handwriting instruction.

Help for the "southpaw." The left-handed writer or sinistral continues to receive some attention in the literature. Groff (409), working along these lines, found in comparing the writing specimens of left- and right-handed children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades that right-handed children did not write any better than did the left-handed ones.

Enstrom (292) suggested three ways of positioning the hand and paper for sinistrals who keep their writing hand below the line and one position for the "hookers" who cannot or do not desire to change. Williams (1139) also discussed procedures for helping the left-handed writer, and an interesting study dealing with the left-handed child was reported in the London *Times Educational Supplement* (1073). In the *Supplement* report, an experimental pencil was described—one which gave the subject the same effect as the "hook" posture while retaining the normal orientation of the hand to the body with the hand positioned below the line.

Handwriting scales. Bezzi (78) collected handwriting samples from 130 schools throughout the United States in order to develop a five-step manuscript scale to be used in the primary grades. Herrick and Erlebacher (451) categorized the handwriting samples of 600 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students by size, slant, and legibility. They produced a master scale defining a given continuum of writing quality.

Two studies have been reported which were concerned with the reliability of judging handwriting. Rondinella (881) had 210 elementary teachers rate the handwriting samples of 239 children in grades 4, 5, and 6. She found the teachers to be subjective in their ratings and learned that many were not aware of any major criteria for judging handwriting.

Feldt (316) studied the reliability between judges for a set of scales used in grades 1 and 2. Correlations were found to be relatively low by today's standards. To improve reliability, the author suggested averaging scores from independent testing sessions and providing additional training materials for teachers.

The Act of Handwriting

The hand movement, the velocity and rhythm, and the pressure phenomena were identified by Anderson (17) as the dimensions of the handwriting act most commonly considered throughout the literature related to the handwriting act. Although researchers have for several years concerned themselves with the kinds of movement made in writing, few studies in this area have been reported recently.

Callewaert has suggested an interesting modification to the traditional grip of the writing instrument—one which he feels is less awkward and constrictive. To use this grip, the writer places the barrel of the pen between the middle and index fingers and grips with the index finger, the lateral portion of the middle finger, and the distal end of the thumb. The hand and wrist are positioned more sharply to the right with the palm facing down. He stated that ". . . the round handwriting more easily achieves rounded letters (making them more in the form of a circle), and that the technique is more physiologically sound than the classic manner of holding and moving the writing instrument" (146:47).

No research evidence was presented to substantiate the claims for this method. A study by Otto (788) also has evaluated the grip proposed by Callewaert.

Handwriting speed. Groff (410) studied the handwriting speeds of 1,563 fourth graders, 1,522 fifth graders, and 1,749 sixth graders enrolled in two Southern California school systems. He found that girls in the study wrote faster than the boys and that there was no difference due to handedness. Groff has also suggested new norms of handwriting speed which contain fewer letters per minute than did the old norms established by Ayres.

Love (628) reported on the results of a study comparing the quality, speed, and use of handwriting by 30 children from regular classrooms and 25 children from special classrooms. Their ages ranged from 12 to 15 years. He found that mentally retarded children scored better on quality of handwriting and normal children scored significantly better on speed.

A national survey by Herrick and Okado (452) led to the conclusion that handwriting speed was not emphasized until the middle and upper grades.

Of the various factors emphasized in teaching, speed was considered least important. A smaller regional survey by Soltis (996) also indicated little concern for speed.

Physiomotor data. Harris and Rarick (439) examined certain physiological and motor aspects of behavior in relation to handwriting legibility. Ten bright, ten average, and ten slow-learning fifth and sixth grade students wrote under varying conditions—usual, fast, test, relaxed. The results indicated that legibility was definitely affected by the different conditions under which children wrote. Not unexpectedly, those with the best motor control produced the most legible handwriting.

No recent research related to rhythm in handwriting was located. However, Anderson has reviewed extant older research and stated (15:47): "The evidence is unclear from the research as to precisely what part rhythm plays in the handwriting act and this is partly due to the lack of an acceptable definition of rhythm."

Styles of Writing

A number of years ago, Freeman (351) identified the two main issues regarding the "best" style of writing to teach as (a) vertical vs. slanting writing and (b) manuscript vs. cursive. He also stated that the issue concerning vertical writing had been pretty well settled in favor of a moderate slant, but opinion and practice were not nearly so unanimous regarding manuscript writing. Although his statement was made in 1954, it aptly describes the current scene.

The question of slant in print writing was discussed by Enstrom (295). He regards either vertical or slant as "correct," with the decision depending on the concern for the effect of letter forms on reading or on later cursive writing.

As of 1960, 79 percent of U.S. schools were teaching both manuscript and cursive writing, 14 percent taught cursive only, and 7 percent manuscript only. The pattern of teaching both styles appears to be fairly well established in most schools.

Parent and employer preferences. Two surveys have been conducted to sample opinion regarding the use of manuscript and cursive handwriting. Renaud and Groff (867) sent questionnaires to 336 parents in Southern California. The response revealed that parents favored the use of manuscript in grades 1 and 2, but would object to its continued use through grade 6. Groff (405) surveyed 115 large corporations to determine their preference in handwriting style. The response indicated 33 percent preferred manuscript, 14.3 percent favored cursive, and 52.7 percent said either style was acceptable.

Spelling and handwriting. Byers (144) investigated the effects of style in handwriting on spelling. Pupils in 24 third grade classrooms wrote a four-sentence paragraph using their cursive or manuscript style; and ten days later, without intervening practice, they rewrote the same paragraph using the other styles. No significant differences in spelling accuracy were found. More errors in omitting and transposing letters were made when children used manuscript, but children were more apt to omit a word entirely or substitute letters when they wrote in cursive style.

To join or not to join? The transition from manuscript to cursive is made between the second half of the second grade and the first half of the third grade in approximately 70 percent of the schools, according to the latest national survey.

A study to determine the relationship between manuscript writing and spelling achievement in grade 3 was conducted by Bolen (93). A control group of six classes which had made the transition to cursive writing in October was compared with a group that had delayed the transition until the following May. He found that there were no significant differences between handwriting groups in the ability to spell.

Otto and Rarick (792) examined the effect of transition time upon subsequent performance in handwriting, reading, and spelling. Scores were obtained from 120 fourth graders and 120 sixth graders who made the transition at different times. Their findings were described as follows:

> Taken as a whole, the present data offer only meager support at best for any one of the widely used transition times considered in this study. The impact of transition time upon subsequent reading performance appears to be very slight. Its impact upon subsequent spelling performance appears to be dependent upon local practice. And the implications of its impact upon subsequent handwriting performance are dissipated by the conflict inherent in the fact that rapid writing is associated with late transition and legible writing is associated with early transition. The conclusion to be drawn seems to be that when the transition is made is less important than what is offered in the instructional program (792:216).

Hildreth (459) advocated a form of simplified writing that is not a complete changeover from manuscript to cursive. The Society for Italic Handwriting, as one might expect, recommends that a fluent italic style be taught at all levels.

One is led to conclude that actual research in the past six or eight years has not produced overwhelming evidence that schools should radically alter the program that is now being offered. Perhaps the problem is that of developing an interest on the part of researchers which is sufficient to produce more definitive investigations.

Chapter Eight

Webster's Baby

Shirley N. Robards

ALTHOUGH spelling is included in most daily classroom schedules, the widespread impression lingers that today's children do not spell well. The ASCD language arts research reviews of 1955 and 1963 (942, 943) also noted this deficiency. In fact, there has been public concern about the prevalence of incorrect spelling ever since the days of Webster's classical *Blue Back Speller*.

The status of spelling today is discussed below in sections built around: (a) current trends and views on spelling, (b) factors which appear to influence spelling ability, (c) the impact of linguistics on spelling, and (d) research and opinions regarding the most effective ways of teaching spelling.

General Viewpoints and Reviews of Research

Since 1963, when the last ASCD review of language arts research (943) appeared, numerous articles have been published in the field of spelling. Some of these articles have been research summaries. Others have adduced suggestions for improving spelling instruction based on research findings. Still other articles have proposed ways of improving methods of teaching spelling based on teachers' experiences and opinions.

General comment. The literature still suggests some small measure of chaos in spelling. Hodges (431), in his "Short History of Spelling Reform in the United States," noted that dissatisfaction with spelling has existed at least since 1300. In another article, "Obstacles to Spelling

Reform," Stevens (1022) reported that spelling instruction has remained virtually unchanged for three centuries. Also, as Dewey (244) pointed out in a 1968 article in *Education*, American-English spelling consists of 41 sounds represented by 26 symbols. Even in an abridged dictionary—approximately 70,000 words—one finds more than 500 different spellings of these 41 sounds. Yet Tauber (1053) noted, in a 1965 article in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, that there has invariably been criticism of any new ideas proposed by persons advocating spelling reform.

Over the years spelling has been made more confusing because words and their usage have changed. In a 1969 issue of the publication, *Writer*, Conger (194) cited several sample sentences from Webster's *Blue Back Speller*. He pointed out, for example, that in this little book the farmer sold corn by the bushel and butter by the "firkin" (that is, a British unit of measurement that equals about one-fourth of a barrel). Fenner (319) went on to speak of words that Webster never used, or which have new meanings or connotations today. She gave such examples as "culturally deprived" and "strike." New usages such as these bring new problems. Likewise, as Betts (76) and Hanna and Hodges (431) point out, the impact of foreign words on the English language, and the inconsistencies between oral and written language, cause further difficulties.

Opinions regarding spelling. Since 1963 many writers have interpreted research in spelling and have suggested ways of improving instruction. Ediger (278), for example, reiterated the need for making adequate provision for individual differences, while Brown (127) suggested the familiar tactic of letting each pupil make his own spelling list in order to learn to spell the words that he needed in his daily writing. Ham (427) and Veto (1094) also supported an individualized approach.

Furness (363) described basic principles of a sensory approach to spelling, noted factors that affect learning, and suggested teaching procedures to use. Sceats (916) suggested using i/t/a, the initial teaching alphabet, because it helped children write anything they could say.[1]

Yee (1162), who prepared a critique of research regarding the controversy over rules and phonics in spelling, regarded phonics as an aid to spelling, but not as a substitute for a more comprehensive program of instruction. On the other hand, Cramer (205) concluded that studies of the relationship of phonics instruction to spelling achievement yielded inconsistent results. Groff (406) edited the research critiques of the Hanna-Moore study, which revealed that the 3,000 words in the basic vocabulary of the elementary school child were represented by regular spelling patterns 80 percent of the time. Venezky (1091) proposed a spelling system based on linguistic principles as the key to subsequent reading success; and Edwards (282) concluded that learning to spell through usage is better than learning 30 isolated words weekly.

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[1] Also cf. references to i/t/a in the review of research in reading, especially pages 39-58.

Ernest Horn (474) suggested that spelling should be coordinated with other language activities and should consume about 75 minutes weekly, while Thomas Horn (477), Davis (217), and Petty (814) suggested in their reviews on the current status of spelling that greater application of present research findings is needed. Other summaries of research in spelling have been reported by Thomas Horn (476), Marksheffel (655), Lamana (581), and Petty and Burns (818).

Cleary (184), who reported the complaints of businessmen and teachers regarding poor spellers, suggested using a well organized spelling program in business classes to improve spelling competency. Morford (724) created a novel "Revizd Alphabet" as a means for teaching phonetic spelling to future secretaries.

Sherwin (949) compiled research, including spelling, in a 1969 volume that included a useful bibliography covering approximately 90 years. Sherwin (950) noted, among other things, that choosing objectives, selecting words, organizing words, and arranging words are still problems in the spelling curriculum.

Why Do Some Children Spell Better Than Others?

Most of the literature implies that the primary objective in teaching spelling is to help each child to spell correctly those words that he needs in his daily writing. Because the spelling ability of children in a given age range varies tremendously, it is important for teachers to be aware of current research that may provide answers to the question of why children differ in spelling abilities.

Lamb (582) analyzed misspelled words in all written expressions of a group of tenth grade students and concluded that: (a) the spelling achievement of tenth grade students does not meet the expectations of today's society, (b) boys misspell about twice as many words as girls,

(c) a positive correlation exists between spelling achievement and intelligence, and (d) a lower but positive correlation also exists between spelling achievement and reading achievement.

Factors influencing good and poor spelling performance. Grothe (412) decided that "spelling conscience" tends to coincide with IQ and achievement in school. Her small sample from a middle socioeconomic stratum indicated that—as is so often the case in language arts research—further investigation in this area was necessary. Warren's (1113) findings in her doctoral study of "spelling conscience" were similar to Grothe's.

In a doctoral dissertation, Shintani (952) investigated the spelling ability of 605 mentally handicapped pupils with IQ's ranging from 47 to 92. Although the girls spelled more accurately than the boys, the total analysis of the data indicated that the IQ per se was not a good predictor of spelling ability for this group.

Wallace and others (1105) analyzed the responses of good and poor spellers. Each subject chose one member of a pair of five-letter nonsense words that "looked most like a real English word." Two separate experiments were conducted, one with 124 fifth grade pupils and the other with 129 eighth grade pupils. Generally, good spellers were superior to poor in both studies in the number of correct choices. The writers concluded that spelling may be a "rapid decision process" determined by cues within the structure of the language. According to Wallace and others (1105), this ability may be related to verbal intelligence. In a somewhat similar investigation, Wallach (1106) noted the superiority of good spellers in choosing responses that resembled extant English words.

Hunt and others (485) identified four types of abilities that apparently are needed by children before they can become effective spellers: (a) the ability to associate sounds with symbols, (b) the ability to analyze words structurally, (c) the ability to see a word and to write it, and (d) the ability to cope with spelling "demons." The writers also suggested that these separate abilities have diagnostic value in identifying spelling deficiencies.

DeHirsch (229) suggested that membership in a given socioeconomic level may influence spelling ability. He also suggested that some six-year-olds may not be able to spell because the motor control required of children before they can write has not yet developed adequately.

Additional studies concerned with causes of spelling difficulty included one by Love (627) who used auditory discrimination exercises with an experimental group of fourth and fifth graders who spoke both French and English. These same exercises were used with a control group of youngsters who spoke only English. The experimental group, according to Love, made significant gains in auditory discrimination, but neither of the groups made significant gains in spelling. Radaker (852) concluded that the ability to observe the smaller differences between words was related to spelling ability.

Groff (408) reported finding no significant increase in spelling achievement among a group of children in the intermediate grades who had received special instruction in word perception, while Hodges (431) concluded that some children exposed to multi-sensory experiences improved in their ability to spell. Other techniques must be used, however, Hodges noted, because multi-sensory experiences were not effective with all children.

Other research may be summarized as follows:

> Frasch (347) found that proofreading helps average and above average spellers to improve further.
>
> Personke and Knight (807) reported that proofreading helps boys, but evidence for the girls in their sample was inconclusive. . . . Use of the dictionary was helpful only in correcting misspellings.
>
> Kooi and others (565) found that difficult letter combinations in mid-word were frequently misspelled.
>
> Stone (1026) noted that spelling errors were due to faulty pronunciation of words like *travling* for traveling (omission error) or *ath(a)letics* (added letter error).
>
> Thomas (1061), in a Canadian study, determined that phonic spelling errors were most common and omission errors were second.
>
> Plessas (830) studied homonyms as sources of errors and identified *its* as having the doubtful honor of being most troublesome.
>
> Hodges (431) updated "demon" research and designated three reasons for problems with these "hard" words: exceptional phoneme-grapheme relationships (for example, *yacht*); lack of alphabetic clues (for example, *eighth*); and rare patterns (as in *aisle* or *receipt*).

Relationships among reading, writing, and spelling. The relationship between reading and spelling has been investigated by many writers. Although classroom teachers often have expressed the belief that a good reader is one who spells well, and that good spellers are good readers, research on the relationship between reading and spelling does not consistently support such statements! Peters (811), for instance, concluded that different methods of teaching reading did not affect spelling achievement.

Personke (806), when comparing the spelling achievement of Scottish and American children, found that five-year-old Scottish children who received a strong phonic emphasis in reading and spelling at the beginning of the school year became better spellers than six-year-old American children who, at the beginning of the school year, had been taught to read and spell using a whole word approach. In a study conducted by Plessas and Ladley (834), an attempt was made to teach spelling through reading. The conclusion reached was that reading comprehension was adversely affected when an excessive amount of attention was devoted to analyzing words.

In yet another study, Plessas and Ladley (833) attempted to determine the effect of reading improvement on the spelling ability of retarded readers. They concluded, among other things, that improved word recognition skills do not necessarily contribute to the spelling achievement of severely retarded readers. In a later study, Plessas and Dison (832) explored the area of spelling differences among good readers. Good readers with high achievement levels in spelling seemingly relied on phonics rather than on visual memory.

Typical of conflicting research were reports by Groff and Horn. Groff (407) indicated that a positive relationship existed between phonics and successful spelling, while Ernest Horn (474) reported no conclusive evidence regarding the relationship between phonics and spelling. Clymer (187) suggested first teaching the phonics *generalizations* rather than *exceptions,* thus encouraging children to examine words for sound-to-letter relationships.

O'Reilly (774) analyzed the phonics content in current spelling textbooks. He found that all such texts used some type of phonic approach, but that there were inconsistencies between objectives in the manual and many of the procedures found in the pupils' books.

Several studies were concerned with the relationship of spelling and writing. Otto and Rarick (792) advised us that the time of transition from manuscript to cursive writing did not directly influence spelling achievement. Byers (144) investigated the effects of style in handwriting on spelling of 586 third graders. She concluded that children who missed a word when they wrote it in one style also missed the same word in the other style. Also, Byers found that manuscript writing apparently produced slightly more accurate spelling. Conversely, in a doctoral thesis, Bolen (93) reported no significant differences in the spelling achievement of pupils who used manuscript or cursive writing. Evidently one still must "make his choice and place his bets" as to what spelling strategies work best!

Linguistics and Spelling

As late as 1963, very little research linking linguistic study to spelling had appeared. This is no longer the case.

Mazurkiewicz and Lamana (671) reported the effects of learning to read, write, and spell in i/t/a on traditional spelling. When measured by traditional standards in free writing, the i/t/a group proved to be superior. Further testing of writing behavior using additional criteria was suggested. Downing's research (262) in a London i/t/a experiment, however, merely noted that learning to read and spell in i/t/a did not necessarily cause poor spelling.

Evidently commercial spelling materials need further attention. Boord (96), who analyzed five widely used spelling textbooks in Indiana, concluded that three of the five series did not emphasize the alphabetic principle and spelling patterns for the teaching of spelling. While two of the five texts did use spelling patterns that were basic to the English language, neither was consistent in presenting words in groups and patterns.

Hanna and others (433) engaged in a monumental study which investigated the alphabetic nature of American-English spelling. Sixty-two phoneme classifications were used to analyze 17,000 common words of American-English orthography. The researchers were interested in three kinds of analysis in Phase I of the Hanna study: (a) phoneme-grapheme correspondences regardless of phonological factors; (b) phoneme-grapheme correspondences as they related to position in the syllable, and (c) phoneme-grapheme correspondences in relation to stressed and unstressed syllables. Results indicated that vowel and consonant sounds and their symbols have regular spellings approximately 80 percent of the time.

Phase II of the Hanna study (433) was concerned with predicting the spelling of phonemes when their position, stress, and environment were included. Spelling errors were analyzed with respect to their phonological basis. Analysis of the 17,000 words indicated that 49 percent were spelled correctly and 37.2 percent had one error. The errors, Hanna noted, could be corrected through mastery of morphological rules.

Glim (382), Bergquist (69), Hodges (431), and Rudorf (892) emphasized the importance of the sound-symbol relationship in teaching spelling. Hanna and others (429, 433, 434) suggested changing the present approaches used in teaching spelling, utilizing recent research findings in linguistics.

Groff (406), who edited the research critiques of the Hanna study, questioned the alphabetic nature of the English language. For example, the group of words containing silent letters was not analyzed.

The Improvement of Spelling Instruction

Classroom teachers charged with the task of developing better programs of spelling instruction will find the task has become more complex in recent years. Until a decade ago, the task often was merely that of deciding which text to use. Schools wishing to adopt a spelling system now confront the following questions:

1. What is the *source* of the spelling lists found in the new spelling texts currently being published?
2. Should the *approach* to teaching spelling be direct or incidental?
3. Which specific *method* of word attack should be used?
4. Which *activities* are more effective in reinforcing spelling skills?
5. What is the role, if any, of *teaching machines* and *auto-programs* in spelling?

Hollingsworth (468) investigated the usefulness of Ernest Horn's vocabulary list originally developed in 1926. Letters to the editor in four metropolitan newspapers were compared to his *A Basic Vocabulary of 10,000 Words Most Commonly Used in Writing.* Results showed that after 40-odd years almost all of the words in Horn's list were still being used in adult writing! It would seem that needed improvement in spelling was not basically due to language change.

Bloomer (90) commented on the need for the teacher to make decisions regarding words to be included in a flexible spelling program. He also noted that the difficulties children encounter in learning certain words could be predicted, since the length of a word and the frequency with which a word was used correlated positively with the following criteria:

1. The *grade level* where 50 percent of the pupils spelled the word correctly
2. The *year* the greatest number of children learned to spell a word
3. The *maximum percent* of children learning to spell a word in a given year.

The mosaic of spelling research to improve instruction. In general, research with some bearing on the improvement of spelling can be pieced together in an interesting mosaic. However, as in years past, this mosaic does not yet provide a coherent picture. There are pieces missing, and no overall picture of agreement has emerged.

The excerpts cited below, while many are from good studies, bear out the continued need for more hard data.

Hughes (481) argued the need for a more creative and challenging approach since many children he studied *already* knew most of the words in their weekly lists.

Fink and Hogan (328) urged an individualized rather than a group approach dependent on a text.

Reid and Hieronymus (866) compared several methods in grades 2 and 3 and reported that the "test-study-test" method and the "word perception method plus test" proved superior to the "correction-proofreading" and the "workbook" approaches.

Sister Josephina (970), using Morrison-McCall materials, decided that neither "formal" nor "incidental" instruction influenced the achievement in her groups.

Allen and Ager (6) concluded from a study of 100 seniors in Detroit that spelling may be an independent skill that requires instruction for all pupils, except the good spellers.

Sister Evangelist Marie (969) ranked methods according to effectiveness as follows: (a) thought methods, (b) deductive, (c) inductive.

Hall (421) found no reliable difference in favor of either the corrected test or the letter mark-out method.

Personke and Yee (808) developed a theoretical model for analyzing spelling behavior that allowed for most of the contingencies which teachers encounter in teaching and evaluating spelling. In another article (809), they noted their model could be applied to specific classroom situations.

Brothers and Holsclaw (121) also noted that the Personke and Yee model could be used effectively for analyzing spelling behavior.

Scott (932) found that neither a conventional textbook approach to teaching spelling nor an approach which allowed for some individualizing of instruction made a significant difference in spelling achievement.

Freyberg (352) and Eisman (286) reported, in contrast to Scott, that individualized spelling programs *were* effective.

Eichholz (284) found that students using a self-check device for reinforcing instruction learned a greater number of words than those students following a traditional textbook-type spelling program. More time was required by the students who used the self-check device, however.

Umstattd (1085) compared the effectiveness of two methods of teaching spelling to 109 eighth grade, inner city, junior high school pupils. She concluded that students who were taught spelling by the "discovery method" transferred learning more significantly than students taught spelling by the "practice method."

Pescosolido (810), working in Connecticut, stated that according to his inquiry the phonics-structural method and teacher-directed methods were more successful than the whole word method of teaching spelling.

Allred and others (12), at Brigham Young University, found that the "individualized method" of teaching spelling was just as effective as the "whole-group approach," especially with primary children.

Christine (177), in a doctoral thesis, showed that the "corrected-test" and the "study-test" methods usually produced similar results. The "corrected-test" method, however, took less time.

Meyn and others (706) explored whether a relationship existed between spelling achievement and the procedures used in evaluating spelling. Apparently, neither the practice of marking errors nor the practice of noting correct responses made any difference in spelling achievement.

Haddock (418), using control groups, investigated the effects of films and tapes versus a traditional study-test-study technique. No significant difference was noted, but the experimental group using the media approach did devote less time each day to spelling.

Hanna (430) noted that since spelling bees primarily test recall, they should not be used in place of methodical spelling instruction.

Evans (305) recommended using the 19th century favorite, the mnemonic device, to aid pupils in spelling words to which the useful phonic and structural generalizations would not apply. For instance, the word *plateau* might be learned by adding *au* to the *plate*.

The *Times Educational Supplement* (1074) described a programmed learning approach to remedial spelling. The remedial group made greater gains in spelling when compared to a control group. Additional findings indicated that teaching machines were helpful when a shortage of staff made individualized instruction difficult or impossible.

O'Toole (784) found that students apparently learned more words in less time with teaching machines than they did with the spelling workbook.

Pacholl (793) proposed using tapes, while Bartholome (57) suggested using the typewriter as an effective means of teaching spelling to ninth grade pupils, especially the economically deprived or culturally handicapped children.

Friedman (354) and Hancock and others (428) found the use of machine instruction more effective when used with third graders than with second graders.

Criscuolo and Grabowski (208) reached the conclusion that children had more difficulty spelling words chosen from television programs than spelling words from *Thorndike's Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*.

Fishman and others (332), using computerized spelling drills, pointed out that words learned in one day were readily recalled during the learning period, but that words of comparable difficulty were retained longer when the learning period was extended as long as six days.

In summary, as the reader probably has long since decided for himself, spelling—"Webster's Baby"—is a difficult infant with which

to cope. One can discover at least some research or opinion which supports his approach to teaching spelling almost regardless of the method(s) he is using. And it seems reasonable to warn the reader not to hold his breath until something like a consensus is reached.

Chapter Nine

Creative Writing

BACON said more than 300 years ago that "Writing maketh an exact man," but we are still awaiting research data to support this and similar editorial opinions with which our professional journals bulge. The existing research in creative writing suggests two reasons for the lack of conclusive research in creative writing, although there probably are others. One is surely that we often stop too short in testing our premonitions and hypotheses. Research studies have proven that anything can happen *once*. But we still settle for a one-time finding as conclusive, when many good hunches are clamoring to be tested again and again. We need *duplication* in research—as distinct from mere proliferation! A second answer suggested by the research is the need for the rarely attempted longitudinal study, a method extremely desirable because of the way it measures changes in individuals over a protracted period.

Leonard, cited by Squire (1007), charged that students' writing "is a disgrace to American education." This charge went out to 15 million readers of *Look* magazine and received, according to its author, the most unanimously affirmative response of anything he had ever written. The studies and opinions reviewed here should be helpful to teachers seeking evidence to contradict or to temper Leonard's statement and also seeking suggestions as to how they may further improve classroom practice.

Part 1. Creative Writing in Secondary Schools

ROBERT A. MULLINS

The creative process. Perhaps our nation's most wasted natural resource is creativity. Pinnie (827) suggested that the creative act is the response to a unique stimulant; therefore, in order to obtain a "creative" response, we need to provide creative motivation. The child is responding creatively when he is motivated in such a way that he writes about new things which he hears, thinks, and feels, things that may not necessarily be new, but are new to him.

What, then, do we mean by the expression, *creative writing*? Many teachers perceive creative writing as only *imaginative,* informal writing, the antithesis of the more formal, more structured *composition* or *expository* writing. However, because of the very personal nature of the writing process, it is assumed hereafter for purposes of presentation that *all writing must be thought of as creative.*

Viewpoints on creative writing. A number of opinions have been expressed with regard to the nature and importance of creative writing. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (739), for instance, has observed that the medium of writing helps students to control the structure of their language, while Draper (265) tells us that "We write to *see* what we have to say as much as to *say* what we have to say." Presumably the act of writing gives the student an opportunity to be objective when, prior to writing, he was only subjective.

Sister Mary Thomasine's (973) view was that everyone has the potential for writing, and that through the stimulation of strong sensory impressions the student can be made aware of how awesome and powerful and wonderful the act of using his imagination can become. It is the emotional involvement, the expressing of one's feelings and thoughts, that Sweet (1044), Dell (232), and Keables (542) felt was necessary to bring about self-knowledge. Some schools may push "practicality" in writing too far when they ought to be devoting writing to creating, and discovering the world around them. Writing for the sake of writing, Fillion (326) wrote, separates the student from what he writes; and if we do this, we are not teaching. To be valid, Jenkins (509) asserts, creative writing should be an experience in coherent thinking. Also, it is the positive attitude of the teacher toward creative writing that will make such writing valid and encourage *honesty*, according to Fillion (326).

Encouraging students to write. James (506) made the point that "It's fun to write when you can be yourself." Do teachers give their students that freedom? Seidman's (935) study set out to test the hypothesis that motivating students to improve their writing plays a key role in their increased success. His findings revealed that the negative grading habits of secondary school teachers are a key factor in stifling students' motivation. Apparently, to encourage good self-expression, teachers' comments ought to be *positive, informative,* and *selective* if they wish to motivate students to write effectively. A consensus among Smith (984), Benton (67), and Andrews (24) was that students write well when the subject is one *which they know something about.* Topics which have a personal relevance and meaning and are highly perceived in detail provide fertile ground for germinating ideas. Cummins (211) felt that the strong personal involvement which writing affords is a major weapon against *depersonalization,* while Burack (133) contended that we teach writing only as a service entity, but could benefit much more from its value as an exercise in logic and thinking, in freeing and disciplining the intellect.

Surveys of creative writing come to divergent conclusions. In an informal survey of high school students representing 15 states, Allen (10) reported that students *want* to write for various reasons. One response to his survey was that "half of the benefit of writing papers is the benefit *you* gain." In contrast, when Thomas (1062) studied the technical errors in over 1,300 seniors' themes, he found that the papers exhibited "fuzzy thinking at its worst." The curriculum is to blame for not taking time to break down what composes *thought.* Donelson (256) in his study concluded that effective writers were more interested in status occupations, had a greater interest in music, and indicated a greater dislike for grammar and mechanics.

Frequency of writing experiences, the *topic, reading,* and *grammar* also have been subject to comment as they relate to composition. Burton and Arnold (142) studied both frequency and intensity of teacher evaluation and concluded that there was little evidence that "intensive" evaluation was superior to "moderate," but that frequent practice improved performance. Buxton (143) would appear to agree. Since findings sometimes conflict, however, it was not unusual to find that Wheeler's (1129) experimental study led him to state that ". . . less frequent writing does not result in a lessened ability to write" if other motivating factors are present.

Kincaid (556), Nicholson (755), and Nelson (744) have concerned themselves with the influence of topics. Results remain largely speculative, though. Nelson's conclusion seems reasonable; namely, ". . . that there is a qualitative and quantitative difference" created in written work because of the topic.

Data gathered by Heys (453) in grades 9-12 supported the value of reading as a means of improving writing. Wyatt (1158) found no significant relationship in a three-group study in grade 6. A dissertation by Christiansen (176) at the college level added the information that both reading and more frequent writing improved the themes prepared by two experimental groups.

The precise role of grammar as it pertains to composition is not clear. White (1132) contended that work in structural linguistics improved writing, while Murphy's (734) "traditional grammar" group in grade 12 performed better than his "linguistic group." Harris (438), working with the 12-14 age range, concluded that traditional grammar instruction did not increase correct usage. (Neither structural nor transformational grammar was involved.) Other inquiries by Kahler (533), Whitehead (1133), Hillocks (460), and Meckel (695) provide further conflicting data. Meckel's review of research led to eight generalizations:

> 1. There is no research evidence that grammar as traditionally taught in school has any appreciable effect on the improvement of writing skill.
>
> 2. The training periods involved in transfer studies have been short, and the amount of grammar instruction has frequently been small.
>
> 3. There is no conclusive research evidence, however, that grammar has no transfer value in developing composition skill.
>
> 4. More research is needed in the kind of grammar knowledge that might reasonably be expected to transfer to writing.
>
> 5. Research does not justify the conclusion that grammar should not be taught systematically. In some appraisals of research there has been a confusion between the term *formal* grammar, as used to denote systematic study and mastery, and the term as used to mean grammar taught without application to writing and speaking.
>
> 6. There are more efficient methods of securing immediate improvement in the writing of pupils, both in sentence structure and usage, than systematic grammatical instruction.

7. Improvement of usage appears to be more effectively achieved through practice of desirable forms than through memorization of rules.

8. Usage items selected for the curriculum should be determined not only by "errors" made in students' papers, but also by descriptive studies of national usage by linguistic experts.

The atypical student. With respect to creative writing, Thomas (1062) suggested that the "average" students who, he said, make up 80 percent of the school population, are the most neglected and in need of help in communicating through writing. Slow (981), in a college level investigation, studied students enrolled in remedial composition courses to determine what, if anything, they had in common. These remedial students proved to have written fewer class themes in high school than those in regular English classes. More remedial students came from high schools in which teachers did not mark errors in themes and in which student correction of theme errors was not required.

Plotka and Lazarus (836) conducted a field test among 500 youngsters in Indianapolis and concluded that "the culturally deprived in the slums were as responsive and productive as the academically talented and college bound elite."

Blount (92) reports that an objective of the Maloney (650) study was to identify qualities that separated superior writers from poor writers in ninth grade. Evaluators, who analyzed pupils' organizational ability, maturity of insight, style, and word choice for Maloney, arrived at the following conclusions:

> By and large, the superior students were female, white, relatively decided on a future career, and frequent readers. Superior students came from homes where parents owned books. They made fewer mechanical errors on their themes, earned higher and more consistent grades in English, and scored high in reading comprehension, verbal reasoning, and vocabulary tests. They behaved better in the classroom.

At the upper end of the spectrum, another challenge exists, that of the Advanced Placement student. Copely (198) decided that programs for these young men and women should give English top priority. A college education is a "book" education requiring critical thinking and, above all, the ability to express one's self fluently in writing if success is to be achieved. Pike's (823) suggested "survival kit" for the gifted pupil would free him from teacher-directed situations.

Factors affecting writing. In a national study of high school English programs, Applebee (26) discovered that only 14 percent of the English teacher's time is devoted to the direct teaching of *writing*. Also, 84.2 percent of the teachers surveyed met as many as 150 pupils, an average load was 130, and *only 50 percent* of the English teachers in the United States had a major in English. Here perhaps are some tangible reasons why critics like Leonard, cited by Squire (1007), have attacked the quality of secondary school writing.

Braddock's (108) research report reaffirmed earlier findings that there is a high correlation between reduced teaching loads and students' ability to write well *when other factors are consistent.* Allen's (7) survey of what college students wished they had had in high school English recorded pleas for longer research papers and more writing. All students agreed that the key to success in college was the writing skills the student *brought with him from high school.* Evidently students want to write and do see at least some of the reasons that skill in writing is important.

Furthermore, the secondary school should strive to reduce pupil-teacher ratio in English classes in order to meet needs for better written communication. Madden (648), however, warns that heavy class load is *not* the most serious drawback to giving students experience in writing. Rather, the fault lies in many teachers' inability to teach writing, which, in turn, circles us back to the problem of the teacher who is poorly trained in the teaching of this skill.

What colleges expect. No one really can say what colleges would like to have secondary students learn before they matriculate, since a faculty speaks with many voices. The literature does, however, provide a few clues.

Royster (888), a former high school teacher now teaching freshman composition, makes the following "hard-boiled" suggestions to secondary school English teachers:

1. Stress short themes (300-500 words or less), avoiding the long research paper which is often copied and the result of outside assistance.
2. Double in-class writing, then you know it is the student's own.
3. Emphasize revision, rewriting, and polishing; place emphasis on *quality.*
4. Emphasize précis and summary writing.
5. Link composition and literature.
6. Use more thought-provoking topics.
7. Wage war on mechanical errors.
8. Stress expository writing.
9. Be fair, but penalize slipshod work.

Estrin's (304) survey of college professors of freshman English revealed a major concern for the student's inability to organize his thoughts and to write coherent, mature sentences and paragraphs. It is apparent that colleges prefer that the secondary school program stress content, organization, diction, sentence structure, and *expository* writing, and de-emphasize mechanics, "creative" writing, and the long library research paper.

The curriculum continuum concept. The Report of the Kentucky State Citizens' Committee (552), which was based on interviewing teachers and administrators, and examining courses of study, stressed the need for a sequential K-12 program. Based on its findings, the Committee felt that "The lack of articulation, of a carefully worked out sequence of study from grade to grade, was evident in almost all systems."

Hach (417), by implication, suggested the need for a continuum or what Shane [1] has called a "seamless curriculum" when he reported on the wide range of pupil achievement. Specifically, Hach cited the NEA findings that no more than one-fifth of the pupils in any classroom are on the grade level where they presumably belong; the average classroom represents a "mythical group." The need for a curriculum continuum or sequence was further justified because of the varying needs of pupils and the varying rates at which they progress. Although the teacher should commit himself to the concept of a sequence, all students within a program patently should neither follow the same sequence nor be expected to move at the same rate of progress.

Attention also should be drawn to the K-12 Composition Curriculum of the New York State Education Department (748). The "Foreword" in this 1969 state guide (748:iii) states that the dominant emphasis of the program is to be focused on the sequential development of working skills, K-12. Although grade level designations are included, ". . . major emphasis is on the continuing sequential development." A copy of the New York Composition Curriculum was placed in the hands of *every* elementary school teacher and *every* secondary school teacher of English in the state.

The Improvement of Writing

Experiments with control groups. The largest single cluster of journal articles was concerned with research and opinions regarding the improvement of writing. Christiansen (176), using two groups of college freshmen, found that each group performed about as well as the other when one group *read* prose while the other *wrote* three times as many themes. Jenks (511), with three groups of high school sophomores and three control groups, decided that ordered writing practice which focused on a single concept or mood stimulated creativity.

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[1] Cf. Harold Shane. "A Curriculum Continuum: Possible Trends in the '70's." *Phi Delta Kappan* 51:389-92; March 1970.

Young adolescents in grades 8-12 were exposed to various procedures by McColly and Remstad (675), who concluded that:

1. Additional writing alone did not improve writing.

2. Tutoring, even where immediate feedback was possible, was of marginal value at best.

3. Four functional learning activities, consisting of practical study, group discussion, self-instruction, and conventional teacher correction, provided an increase in writing ability.

Teacher-corrected and peer-corrected papers from grade 9 were compared by Pierson (822), who was convinced that the results were so similar as to justify greater use of students in checking compositions.

Representative opinions. A large group of writers ventured subjective judgments on writing. Typical statements and generalizations follow:

1. The focus should be on developing a single writing skill with the presentation rather than subject matter being of greater importance (Engelsman, 290).

2. Writing chosen by students rather than assigned makes evaluation easier and more pleasant (Farrell, 310).

3. Good writing is something that begins in a man's gizzard (Cousins, 202).

4. Students write best when they have something *they* deem valuable to say (Lieberman, 608).

5. Literature as a starting point in teaching composition remained popular in the 1960's (Hayden, 440).

6. Lowe's (630) survey of professional writers—Pearl Buck, Aldous Huxley, James Michener, etc.—indicated that a background of wide reading and individuality of style were of prime importance. Benjamin Spock stressed the importance of the writer's home background.

7. Greater spice and variety are needed in making assignments (Schulberg, 928; Simonson, 962; Thorpe, 1065; Walker, 1103; Watson, 1114).

The English Composition Project. Jewett (515) discussed relevant research in the general area of writing, in reporting on an

NEA English Composition Project begun in 1962 and designed to extend from three to five years, with its chief purpose hopefully to improve the quality of student writing in grades 7-12. The study was begun after the 1960 College Entrance test in English which 150,000 students failed, and was motivated further by the fact that 70 percent of American colleges and universities are required to offer remedial work in English composition. Hypotheses to be tested during the second year of the project were that:

1. Students who write compositions during class learn to write better than students who do the same amount of writing as homework.

2. Students who write a theme a week learn to write better than those who write either once every two weeks or once a month.

3. English teachers who use theme readers teach pupils to write more effectively than other English teachers of comparable ability.

4. The writing laboratory produces student writers who are more self-directive and independent in proofreading and revising their composition work than are students not trained in the writing laboratory.

Specific methods for improving writing. The literature offers a substantial number of specific approaches to the improvement of composition.

Models are important. We teach good writing by displaying and reading good writing: Blackman (83), McCampbell (672), Rideout (869), Schiff (920), and Sauer (912).

A *personalized style* should be encouraged. Content and style are linked: Kaplan (535), Christensen (175).

Rhetoric—the art and science of using words effectively—is important to study: Larson (590) and Ulanov (1084), who also cites Aristotle: "It is not enough to know what we ought to say; we must say it as we ought."

Daily *journal entries* help teachers understand both the pupil and his writing habits: Wagner (1100), Kahler (533).

Stress on *oral-aural-visual* (OAV) approaches promises to improve composition by helping the student understand the relationship between what he reads and writes. Among those commenting on the topic are Sheeley (947), Stern (1019), Higbee (455), and Blau (87). A three-year OAV (or say-hear-see) ESEA Title III study, not yet reported at this writing, has been under way in the Indianapolis Public Schools. The premise being tested is ". . . that to communicate successfully in the written form of our language, a person must 'write with his ear, hear what he is writing.'" That is, *speech* forms a foundation for writing (Sheeley, 947; Tovatt, 1078).

The value in *preparation of research papers* is a controversial question. Allen (7), Pike (823), and Almer (13) support the research paper, while Burack (133), Estrin (304), and Royster (888) disagree. Taylor (1056) contended that such papers were being required more often than other forms of writing.

Preparing poems and short stories has its proponents. Hiatt (454) and Dunning (272) are among those who find importance in story telling. Persuasive enthusiasts for poetry writing include Stassen (1015) and Sheeley (946). Kaplan (536) urges, however, that teachers lacking an affinity with poetry should avoid attempting to teach students to write it.

Evaluating Writing

Space limitations preclude a detailed presentation of how, or whether, it is possible to evaluate creative writing or other written compositions. Bergman (68) and Diederich, French, and Carlton (248) maintain that writing ability can be measured, and Fostvedt (345) adduces criteria (for example, coherence and logic) chosen by three state associations of English teachers and other comparable groups. Kincaid (556) proposed pre- and post-course themes as means of gauging the effectiveness of different teaching *methods*. Scannel and Marshall (915) have demonstrated that English teachers give better grades to flow-free themes.

Subjective opinions as to how critically written work should be graded on form or style (as distinct from ideas and self-expression) vary greatly.

The interested reader will find opinions and related information in reports by Doherty (252), Friedrich (356), Seidman (935), Sister Bernadette (974), Godshald, Swineford, and Coffman (385), Daigon (213), Braddock (108), and Cecco (165).

Lay reader programs, which have an obvious bearing on evaluation, are discussed by Applebee (26), who surveyed the extent of their employment as early as 1966, and Sauer (911) and Braun (111), who found rather little improvement in writing when readers were employed.

Burke (134) and Ford (341) reached more favorable conclusions. Also see reports by Singleton (966), Mahnke (649), and Giltinan (377) for relatively supportive opinion with respect to lay reader programs.

Miscellaneous Reports

Surveys of practices of the 1960's in written composition are plentiful: for example, Braddock (108), Hayden (440), Jewett (514), Meckel (695), Shane and Mulry (944), Sherwin (949), and Strom (1037).

Other miscellany of value included Struck's (1038) study of usage in dissertations, and Hunt's (489) findings as to the length of clauses used by adults and by twelfth graders.

Because research in composition remains challengingly incomplete, we close with a fitting quotation from Braddock *et al.* (108): "Today's composition research . . . may be compared to chemical research as it emerged from the period of alchemy. . . ."

Part 2. Creative Writing and Composition in the Elementary School

MARYLEE GRIFFITH HAYDEN

SINCE the 1963 ASCD review of language arts research (943) the number of teachers institutes, curriculum materials, books, and research studies concerned with children's writing and composition has increased sharply. However, speculative statements still continue to outnumber research reports.

Increasing recognition of the importance of creative writing in the learning process is reflected in the substantial number of articles and research reports undertaken in this area. The 1963 Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer (108) review of composition research pointed out the difficulty in finding any "best" method of teaching creative writing. It is a good summary of the literature up to that date.

General Comments on Children's Creative Writing

Slithery Snakes and Other Aids to Children's Writing by Petty and Bowen (817) includes a quote from Edgar Dale which captures the views of many authors: "In today's world, creativity is not just a nice thing to have, it is a grave necessity." Rogers' (879) views are representative of a number of statements in the literature which support the hypothesis that creativity blooms in an environment of freedom in which self-reliance, self-criticism, and self-evaluation are the nucleus. The fact that Rogers' ideas are not universally accepted was brought out when Nymann (762) investigated the compositions of 243 third grade pupils and concluded that originality in their narrative writing was independent of their locus of evaluation and control, a contradiction of the Rogers' self-evaluation assumption.

Torrance and Fortson (1077), well-known for their interest in creativity, refer to an experimental preschool group which participated in activities designed to produce creative thinking, problem solving, fluency of ideas, and fluency in verbal expression, and to develop auditory and visual discrimination. Superiority over the control group was shown on all verbal and originality measures. Also working in the realm of creativity, Jacobs and Pierce (503) concluded that among 51 bilingual Florida children, the Greek-, Spanish-, and Czech-American children scored higher on creativity tests than did the monolingual children.

Torrance (1076), Guilford (413), and Getzels and Jackson (373) have been involved in the difficult task of designing reliable and valid measures for gauging creativity. "English for Elementary Teachers, A Television Series on Creativity and Imagination in Language" (291) presented a multi-dimensional approach to language, with speakers such as Ruth Strickland, Raven McDavid, Jr., Margaret S. Woods, and Ruth Kearney Carlson. Applegate (28) and Wilt (1142) drew on their experiences in working with elementary children and gave suggestions for providing a climate in which creativity can develop. Tiedt (1068) made an intriguing point when he said that for students to be creative writers, they must take risks, and in order to take risks, they must feel safe and secure in the classroom setting.

Methods of Stimulating the Ability To Write

By far the largest amount of research and comment at the elementary level centered around methods of stimulating or improving children's written work. Viewpoints are presented with reference to questions that teachers often ask.

At what age can we expect children to express themselves creatively? While no one appears to support formal writing or "lessons" for younger children, a number of writers emphasize the desirability of early expressive experience. Strickland (1034) said that children should be given opportunity to dictate material under the guidance of a teacher, and that some children may need this kind of help for several years, even after learning to do some writing for themselves. Sylvia Ashton-Warner (40) presented an "organic teaching" concept when she described the teaching of young New Zealand Maori to write, read, and share their very own books using their own meaningful words.

An unusual experimental study of writing at an early age was reported by Anderson and Bashaw (19). Descriptive and argumentative themes written by 92 first grade students were preceded by 10-minute "treatment discussion periods." The *argumentative* treatment discussion was found to have little effect compared to the *descriptive* discussion, indicating that perhaps the children were not mature enough to gain from an argumentative discussion stimulus.

Smith (986) found that ability in reading and writing correlated at the first grade level, and that children instructed in an intensive phonics (synthetic) approach to reading instruction scored significantly higher in composition performance than those given the gradual phonics (analytic) approach. Perine (805) suggests that young children can benefit from dictating compositions, both to humans and to tape recorders, especially before becoming proficient in handwriting. Everts (307:207) wrote that "Oral language and written communication must be considered together as a sequential English program from kindergarten through high school and even into college."

Do teachers' attitudes and behaviors influence children's writing? The answer here appears to be "Yes—decidedly!" Taylor and Hoedt (1057) investigated the effect of praise and criticism upon the creative writing of 105 fourth grade children in a science class. It was found that the teacher's written praise without correction on student papers was superior to the teacher's marking papers critically and without praise, in regard to quality of composition writing. Although there were no significant differences between the groups, the praised but uncorrected group: (a) produced significantly more work, and (b) appeared to be more independent than the group of students whose papers were subjected to blame and correction.

Biberstine (79) was convinced: (a) that fourth graders who worked in a free, relaxed atmosphere showed a positive relationship in writing performance, (b) that teachers' negative comments or marks on student papers had a substantial negative relation with the pupils' writing ability, and (c) that positive comments of teachers lost their effect if surrounded by large numbers of negative comments. Nikoloff (756) provided at least somewhat contradictory findings when she reported no statistically significant differences in the standardized test writings of fifth and sixth grade children whose teachers were "more strict" as compared with compositions written by children with "less strict" teachers, although 23 out of 24 comparisons favored the less strict group. Not only did the teachers and their pupils sharply differ in perceptions of the teachers' strictness, but the pupils indicated their teachers placed far more stress on mechanics than the teachers felt that they did.

With regard to imposing a standard dialect upon those who are culturally different, Smith (989) wrote that such students should be helped to acquire a new dialect as they grow to need it socially, and that there is nothing to be done in the classroom to speed that growth.

Joseph's (528) publication, *The Me Nobody Knows,* is an anthology of ghetto children's writing which shows the language of at least a few of them to be tremendously effective and sensitive. *36 Children* by Kohl (564) is simplistic and highly subjective, but it also is a poignant, personal account of the author's sixth grade East Harlem class which was given freedom and opportunity to think and to write creatively.

Does the i/t/a influence creative writing? At least a scattering of reports suggest a tentative affirmative answer. Auguste and Nalven (42) evaluated the creative writing of 60 second grade children and reported that the 30 experimental subjects who had been trained with i/t/a during the first grade received higher ratings than did the T.O. (traditional orthography) trained control group. In Britain, Downing *et al.* (264) reported on two independent pilot studies involving third year elementary students, in which it was also found that i/t/a trained subjects apparently wrote more creatively than did the T.O. instructed subjects. Also see reports by Folta (339) and Sandel (906).

Do reading and oral language exercises mediate writing? Using records of voluntary readings kept during a three-year period for 65 children, Wyatt (1158) found no conclusive evidence of a relationship between extensive reading and certain writing skills of the group.

A study by Miller and Ney (712) evaluated the effect of systematic oral language exercises on the writing of fourth grade students. It was found that the experimental group receiving exercises in oral language designed for transfer to written work wrote more freely, used more of the structures taught, and also used more complex sentences than did the control group.

In reviewing British curriculum trends in the teaching of the elementary language arts, Jones (522) saw an increasing tendency to encourage growth through creative activity. Thompson (1063) and Rosen (883) described the need for "oracy" (oral language skill) to develop written and other language work. Dixon (249) wrote, "The movements from spoken to written, from dialect to standard, from kinds of dialogue to kinds of monologue, are all potentially points of rupture—of breakdown in confidence, in acceptance of school, and at worst in the sense of one's own identity. Each movement is therefore a source of failure—or strength."

Do proofreading skills improve children's written work? Shane (941:52) urged that teachers encourage children to extend their use of language in compositions even when they needed much help in spelling "hard" words. "Never tell an eight year old not to use *colonel*," he wrote, "because he is asking you to spell a sixth grade word in the third grade room!"

Turning to proofreading, Laubner (591) evaluated the capitalization and punctuation skills of 327 sixth grade children over an 11-week period. During this interval, he found statistically significant gains in the skills when they were transferred to semi-structured and free writing situations. The lessons involved the use of a proofreading card, constant proofreading, and immediate reference to a corrected copy.

What are some recent procedures used to encourage written expression? Several ventures in improving writing are described in the literature. Edmund (280) found that keeping diaries in which was recorded a well-summarized and well-organized account of the day's activities was enjoyable for fifth and sixth grade pupils but that no significant writing gains subsequently were made according to standardized essay test results.

A study by Barnes (53) indicated that three experimental second grade classes using small word cards (60,000) and 100 grooved boards to combine the cards into sentences generally (a) wrote longer stories, with a greater variety of words, and (b) showed more imagination than the three control classes. Teachers appeared to respond favorably to the experimental treatment despite the need for access to the large number of word cards involved. Miller (717) found that use of the chalkboard by children was a significantly effective vehicle for instruction, motivation, and evaluation of 82 second grade children's creative compositions. Sex differences did not influence written composition performance.

Children also have used photographs, slides, and motion pictures successfully for composing. Writing with visual literacy to express oneself effectively was one of six desirable visual literacy attributes and skills listed by Debes (222). Parker (798) found this "visual literacy" to be improved by (a) organizing ideas expressed in photo-visuals, (b) a concern for getting meaning from various types of visual language, (c) the "turning-on" potential that learner-created photo-visuals have for changing lethargic nonverbal learners into enthusiastic verbal learners, (d) the development of positive self-concepts, (e) the development of environmental awareness, and (f) maintaining an atmosphere of permissiveness.

A six-week New York summer research-demonstration project involving 100 Negro migrant children in grades 1, 2, and 3 was evaluated by Fransecky (346). Each member of the experimental group was provided daily with an inexpensive camera in order that he might compose visual/verbal notebooks. Instruction based on a hierarchy of visual skills was also received. The experimental group seldom used the book-centered materials which were basic to instruction for the control group. Compared with the control group, the experimental subjects evidenced significantly more growth in oral language and reading, indicating that "visual literacy training" may well have extended and enriched their language facility.

As stimuli for writing, Sharples (945) used (a) a picture of two children at the seashore, (b) a winter scene verse, (c) the sound of a loud metallic crash, and (d) the sight and touch of a large rusty key. He found significant differences in the compositions according to the particular stimulus given the 77 10-year-old students.

A study by May and Tabachnick (668) involved the degree of creativity found in compositions written by 603 third and sixth grade children who were given mimeographed paper with one of three different stimuli placed at the top: (a) organized stimulus—line drawing picture of a tree, a hill, and an object in the air near a person, (b) unorganized stimulus—rearranged lines and shapes of original drawing to produce nonobjective pictures with lines and shapes related, or (c) both pictures, from which the subject chose one for the writing stimulus. Similar creativity patterns were found for third grade pupils and sixth grade girls, but pronounced motivational pattern differences favored the unorganized stimulus for sixth grade boys. Nelson (744) reported that six- and seven-year-old children wrote compositions which indicated that the writing content and teaching style were influenced by the topic assigned.

Using a film without words as a stimulus, Huntington (493) investigated measures of syntactic complexity and clarity in the compositions of sixth grade children who write under different post-stimulus variables: (a) delay in writing, (b) review of film content, (c) second exposure to the film. The investigator reported no significant main effects or interactions to support long-standing assumptions that to delay writing or extend experience increased the syntactic and clarity measures.

Karnes *et al* (540) reported a study in which an experimental group of fourth grade gifted students received typing instruction. A comparable control group did not. The experimental group showed significantly greater gains in writing and thinking creatively than did the control group. During the study, tests were administered in the fourth and again in the sixth grade to the same students. Investigations by Artuso (38) and Yuen *et al.* (1164) lend further support to the effectiveness of the typewriter as a creative writing stimulus.

Composition and Grammar Instruction

A growing body of research has probed children's *written* expression with respect to the way in which it is influenced by the teaching of grammar. Some of these studies that have been reported in recent years can be summarized as follows:

Ahern (3), working with second graders, concluded that emphasis on language structure in *reading* classes did not influence children's written language structure.

Gale (366) concluded that teaching linguistically oriented grammar significantly increased the length and the complexity of sentences used by an experimental group of fifth graders. However, error reduction apparently could *not* be attributed to the approach used since a control group taught traditional grammar did equally well.

Mellon (698) reported on 427 seventh grade pupils who were grouped for instruction based on (a) transformational grammar exercises, (b) Latinate parsing, or (c) no grammar. The syntactical fluency of the first group was deemed to be most effective on the basis of pre- and post-writing tests.

Henderson (447) found no evidence of eighth grade written composition's being improved by structural grammar instruction.

White (1132) reported improvement in writing ability, at the seventh grade level, by children taught structural linguistics (control groups were used).

R. Blake (85), also working at the seventh grade level, found no significant differences between structural and traditional groups that were given "traditional" and "structural" instructions.

H. Blake and Hammill (84) concluded that compositions were not significantly different in grades four and five when a structural approach and a traditional approach were contrasted.

One is led to conclude that at least some research literature, at this time, provides solace to teachers regardless of the approach to writing which they wish to take!

Miscellaneous Research—As Related to Written Expression

Due to space limitations, only passing references can be made to studies which merit careful attention from the interested reader. The following studies are, in effect, a census of valuable material.

Kellogg Hunt (490) of T-unit fame has developed a so-called "aluminum" paragraph of 32 short, simple sentences to measure syntactic maturity. Also cf. Hunt (486, 487, 491). O'Donnell *et al.* (768) have reported that, in the upper grades, written control of syntax almost uniformly exceeds oral control. Findley (327), however, contended that the use of oral structures in language exceeded written proficiency. Further divergence was introduced by McLean (688), who studied a random sample of 146 children in grades 4, 5, and 6 whose written work was judged to be superior to their oral work.

Squire (1010) has expressed valuable opinions on composition and also (1007) has proposed five criteria for sequencing written work. He contends that it should:

1. Be based on psychological rather than logical patterns of organization
2. Be based on planned programs of oral language development
3. Be based on what is known about the developmental characteristics of children
4. Introduce students to the problems of expressing ideas in various forms
5. Provide for balanced and adequate attention to all important aspects of writing.

In the area of composition analysis, Carlson (148, 149) has described an "analytical originality story scale" for use in evaluating children's compositions. Based on over 5,000 narratives written by children, the categories included novel or unusual qualities, story structure, emotional tone, story style, and uncommon response. Ratings from 0 to 5 were based on frequency of occurrence of the samples for each item. Scales for creative writing evaluation have also been developed by Yamamoto (1160) and Torrance (1076).

Other research related to writing suggested: (a) that middle grade children often wrote about their personal problems when given an opportunity (Biberstine, 80; Miller, 716); (b) that a positive relationship was found between writing ability and mathematical reasoning in second, fourth, and sixth grade samples from rural Georgia (Wood, 1151); (c) that sex differences sometimes appear in one way or another to mediate writing skill (Wood, 1151; O'Donnell *et al.*, 768; Green, 399); and (d) that socioeconomic status can influence written language (Loban, 618; Riling, 873; Green, 399).

Lewis (604) noted that bilingualism on the part of 56 Chinese and 42 Spanish children did not adversely influence their written language performance when they were compared with 114 monolinguals. Pinkham (826), Mills (720), and Pilon (824, 825) along with Evertts

(307) have related literature and writing, and there are a number of persons who have concerned themselves with poetry. Persons interested in *poetry writing* may wish to consult:

Groff (403), who has analyzed the poetry writing of 540 intermediate grade school children

Duffy (266), who explored the influence of methodical prosody instruction on verses written by middle graders

The Nebraska Curriculum Development Center (741) poetry curriculum which was published in 1966

Arnstein's (34, 35, 36) and Walter's (1108) suggestions for encouraging children to write

Tiedt's (1067) statements on developing different poetry forms such as her own "Diamante"

Applegate's (29) recent suggestions

Stratta's (1030) comments on poetry writing in Britain

Henderson's (449) instructive book, *Haiku in English.*

While creative writing and composition do not seem to lend themselves to conventional research, in the past decade considerable imagination has been displayed in developing various kinds of inquiries. Also, the rate at which data have accumulated has increased.

Chapter Ten

Research in the Realm of Literature

HAL BISHOP

ONE who examines research related to literature for children and young adolescents soon discovers that the field is limited largely to reports that are useful for descriptive purposes. This is because educationists and scholars have never really come to grips with the question, "Is there a behavior that the schools expect the study of literature to produce?"

Presumably, in terms of behavioral outcomes, the purpose of teaching literature is to transmit the values of the culture to the learner and to develop within him strong individual guides to behaving that encourage him to function effectively as a member of society. If this purpose is to be attained in some degree, three questions remain unanswered:

1. What are the values of our culture to be found in literature and how are they best transmitted?
2. What is the nature of effective individual value systems?
3. How can the study of literature help the individual to develop within himself the achievement of these value systems?

Because there is no clear-cut body of theoretical material to serve as a touchstone, research in curriculum, instructional methods, and evaluation—as it pertains to literature—is less meaningful than it can become. At the same time, there is in print considerable provocative material which seems to provide a good foundation on which to base a quest for greater meaning in the realm of literature.

Objectives of Instruction

Since literature in good high school English programs apparently absorbs 52.2 percent of available classroom time (27), it may be of interest to review some objectives that have been proposed for these pervasive hours.

Over 50 years ago James Hosic (478) urged[1] that literature be taught to deepen the reader's imaginative life and to heighten his sensitivity. Seemingly we have come full circle since the Hosic statement! I. A. Richards' *Practical Criticism*, 1929, which showed that even good readers fail to comprehend the sense of much literature; *Understanding Poetry*, 1938, in which Brooks and Warren emphasized close reading; and Wellek and Warren's 1956 *Theory of Literature* (867A, 117A, 1125A) combined to produce a renewed emphasis on the content and discipline of literary studies. Statements made since the late 1950's, however, are again emphasizing cultivation of the reader's imaginative powers as Hosic recommended.

Definitions of the objectives of teaching literature in the 1960's have stressed both the affective and the cognitive sphere. The CEEB's[2] Commission on English (192) recommended intensive study of the classics with special attention to legend and myth. Selections were to be taught so that students might learn to understand and to evaluate.

A much different set of objectives was proposed by the NCTE Commission on Literature (1012), which reiterated Hosic's view that it is important to cultivate the imaginative experience. Perhaps the major attempt to define objectives for the teaching of English has come out of the Anglo-American Conference on the Teaching of English, a meeting of British and American scholars and teachers of English, which was summarized by Dixon (249) and Muller (732). The conference report stressed imaginative involvement in literature and warned against blocking active emotional involvement by over-attention to literary facts.

The Literature Curriculum

Broad statements. The NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum (983A) defined the major issues in curriculum development as:

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[1] In a 1917 statement for the NEA Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education which also produced the often quoted "Seven Cardinal Principles of Education."

[2] College Entrance Examination Board.

1. The degree of attention that should be given to literature in elementary schools
2. The use of student preference in the selection of reading
3. The value of independent reading as a class activity
4. The basis for sequence
5. The relation of the humanities to the total program.

The CEEB's Commission on English (192) dealt with the fourth point by proposing that English curricula be designed by teachers so that sequence was based on their best professional judgment of the learner's maturity.

USOE curriculum centers. Undoubtedly, establishment of curriculum study centers (65) by the U.S. Office of Education has been one of the more significant influences on the curriculum in the 1960's. The University of Nebraska center, for example, produced a K-12 curriculum based on myth and literary instruction as dealt with by literary critic Northrop Frye. The Carnegie Institute of Technology developed a thematically based curriculum; Purdue, a "great works" curriculum; and Hunter College created a curriculum for the disadvantaged, 7-12.

The University of Oregon produced a 5-12 curriculum emphasizing understanding of literary forms and craft, and Florida State University designed a curriculum intended to strengthen cognitive processes described by Bruner and Piaget.

Literature in the elementary years. Major critics of English curricula have repeatedly deplored the inadequate attention given to literature in the elementary program. Both the NCTE Committee on the National Interest and the NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum have called for more attention to literature at this level.

Much research during the elementary school years has dealt with the content of children's literature. Homze (470) analyzed juvenile trade books and found they generally presented a "child's world" where adults were of little importance and where children solved their own problems. Many of the stories were set in middle class America with an increasingly urban setting in more recent books, as of the time she did her study. Recently there has been an increased emphasis on the disadvantaged, on the atypical, and on children in problem situations. Also, in a novel inquiry, Burris (141) assessed the accuracy of the treatment of Japanese customs and settings in children's literature. After surveying 44 publishers of children's books, Jenkins (510) concluded that demands for easy-to-read beginners' books are on the increase.

Secondary school research. Several recent studies give comprehensive pictures of the present status of the literature curriculum. Most important of these is the massive (601 pages) study by Applebee and Squire (27) which surveyed outstanding high school English programs. Among their findings: (a) that 52.2 percent of classroom time was devoted to literature, as noted previously, and (b) that the proportion of time increased in the later years of high school. Lynch and Evans (640) analyzed 72 literature anthologies in grades 9-12, and found the average weight was three pounds; average length—608 pages! Furthermore, some anthologies contained adaptations with no indication that the text had been altered, while most apparently lacked clear purpose as a basis for content selection.

The investigators, however, praised most of the anthologies for the quality of the literature included and for the portions designed to develop vocabulary from context.

In a survey of high school curricula, Anderson (23) found wide variation in the books being taught. Over one thousand separate titles were listed, while only those durable favorites *Macbeth, Julius Caesar*, and *Silas Marner* were to be found in as many as 75 percent of the schools reporting. Friedrich and Lander's (357) survey of college English entrance requirements, surprisingly, ascertained that the college departments had no prescribed book lists; they often did, however, *recommend* reading works of presumed literary merit and rejected the teaching of abridgments.

Censorship. Increased access to a wide variety of books and a growing emphasis on contemporary literature have meant a rise in censorship incidents. Burress (140) reported that 22 percent of *all* Wisconsin public school teachers have been involved in censorship disputes. According to a questionnaire study by Ahrens (4), it was the better-prepared, better-read teachers of English who encouraged their students to read widely and therefore most often became embroiled in censorship Donnybrooks. Most "censorship" appears to reside in voluntary removal of titles from shelves and from reading lists prepared by teachers and librarians, according to Farley (309). This finding was substantiated by Applebee and Squire (27), who also reported that *The Catcher in the Rye*, listed by gifted students as their most memorable title in Whitman's study (1135), was not to be found in 50 percent of the school libraries surveyed.

Method of Teaching Literature

Stimulating personal development. Research in methods of teaching literature is restricted because of inadequate measuring devices. However, imaginative approaches to the topic seem promising. Casper (160), for instance, taught "Junior Great Books" to fifth graders as an extracurricular activity carried on in small discussion groups. He then reported finding significantly increased "divergent thinking"—the tendency to revise the known, to speculate, and to utilize new forms of thought—in his subjects. An ambitious study which measured the effects of methods involving divergent thinking, minimum threat to self-esteem, and student participation in the development of cognitive understandings was made by Brown, Hackett, and Michael (124). They found that twelfth graders who had been encouraged to use divergent thinking showed greater awareness of conflicts, were more responsive to ideas, used past experience, and engaged in more rational thinking as a result of their reading.

The effects of teacher-posed questions on the nature of the student's thinking were studied by Wolfe (1148). She demonstrated that elementary teachers who ask analytical questions in their discussion of literature promote analytical thinking in their students. Walker (1104) also considered the effects of thinking analytically about literature. He recommended instructional techniques which stimulate analytical thinking for teaching literature in the high school. After reviewing modern literary criticism, he concluded that analysis of literary structure stimulated response to craftsmanship as well as to meaning.

Reading literature aloud. Another body of research in methods of teaching literature deals with the effects of reading literature aloud to children. In 1964, the results of a rash of studies—Strickland (1035), Durkin (273), and Plessas and Oakes (835)—supported the importance of oral reading in developing young children's reading skills. Then in 1968, Cohen (189) expanded on this work, particularly Strickland's, by testing the effects of daily oral reading on New York City slum children. Tests at the end of the school year showed significant gains in vocabulary and comprehension.

Free and prescribed reading. Since the 1920's, considerable data have been compiled in order to determine the effects of free reading as distinct from prescribed reading. The research consistently has favored extensive, free reading over intensive reading. Sartain (910), in a study of free reading with elementary pupils, found that pupils read more widely when there was self-selection. Paperback libraries placed in elementary and secondary schools for one year increased the personal reading of 62 percent of the students, according to Fink and Bogart (329). Moreover, most of the teachers in the study felt that their instructional methods had improved. By comparing various mixes of free reading time and systematic skill instruction with sixth graders, Lawson (592) found the highest reading achievement resulting from a combination of 30 minutes of skill instruction and 15 minutes of free reading. After observing 158 high school programs, Squire (1005) developed a checklist for evaluating English programs. He included a recommendation for a balance between intensive and extensive reading.

Another study of methods of teaching literature was reported by Prettyman (849), who found that better results were obtained in teaching literature to twelfth graders by using the lecture method rather than the activities method.

Response to Literature

In 1964, George I. Brown (123:187), writing in the *Review of Educational Research,* deplored the ". . . disheartening neglect of research into the relationship between literature and the psychological processes in education." He then posed questions regarding the psychological effects of literature. How, for instance, might heroes, cumulatively derived from literature, affect our ego ideal? Studies by Squire (1009) and Purves (851), writing respectively in 1964 and 1967, provided some comprehensive descriptions of response to literature that helped to answer Brown's query.

A much earlier British study of response to literature was attempted by I. A. Richards (867A), whose *Practical Criticism* in 1929 describes an early attempt to explore the psychological impact of literature. Close reading of his students' written reactions to literary selections of unknown authorship led him to conclude that most readers evaluated a piece of literature on the basis of their notion of the author's rank in the literary pantheon. (If Shakespeare wrote it, it's got to be good!) Lacking the author's name, the readers (all Cambridge University honors students) displayed stereotyped responses and frequent miscomprehension.

Loban and Early also attempted to deal with response to literature before the current interest in this field developed. Loban (621) found—not too surprisingly—a consistent tendency of adolescent readers to identify with characters resembling themselves. Early (276) attempted to relate response to reader maturity. She suggested three stages of growth: (a) unconscious enjoyment, (b) self-conscious appreciation, and (c) conscious delight.

With the Squire and Purves studies mentioned earlier, study of response to literature received a great impetus. These studies both attempted to analyze the content of response to literature. Wilson (1140) subsequently used Squire's (1009) coding of adolescents' response to short stories to describe the responses of college freshmen. He found that logical response occurred late in the students' overall response and concluded that close analysis should come only after free discussion of literature. A comprehensive study by Purves (851) also analyzed a body of written response from critics, school and college teachers, and school children. One interesting finding of the Purves study showed 13-year-olds making more evaluative responses to literature than did 17-year-olds; a phenomenon resulting, perhaps, from limitations imposed by a more structured secondary curriculum.

Other "response" studies for which space does not permit description include those by Peel (803), Rogers and Strang (880), and Monson (721), who concerned themselves, respectively, with art and literature, reading ability, and IQ level. Much of the research in this area deals with affecting students' attitudes through literature. Work of importance was done here by Harding (435), Rees and Pederson (862), Brown (128), Blount (91), and Levinson (602). See bibliographic entries which suggest the nature of the topic which each explored.

Efforts to measure the effects of selected readings on various attitudes have been inconclusive. In an effort to produce a favorable attitude toward scientists, Tatara (1052) measured the effects of reading novels that present scientists in a favorable light, but found that it is difficult to predict the nature of attitudinal changes; some readers even came to view scientists less favorably! Analogous inquiries have been completed by Berninghausen and Faunce (74), as well as by Milgrim (711).

Students' Literary Preferences

While considerable research in the area of literary interest has employed questionnaires and checklists which were not entirely infallible, enough data have accumulated to permit some generalizations. Squire (1004), summarizing studies of reading interests, lists the following general research findings:

1. *Intelligence* is not an important factor in determining reading interests.
2. *Sex difference* is quite significant.
3. *Age* is a more important factor in elementary years than it is later.
4. *Socioeconomic backgrounds* affect reading interests.
5. *Scientific themes, action, surprise,* and *humor* appeal to most young readers.

Teachers, by the way—or so research suggests—are sometimes quite inaccurate in assessing student reading interests. Peltola (804) investigated the appeal of the American Institute of Graphic Arts' (AIGA) prize-winning books for first graders and found that her subjects rejected the prize books for "non-prize" picture books. Student teachers are only moderately successful in predicting poems with appeal for children in grades 1-3, according to a study by Nelson (746). Furthermore, junior high school teachers may be inferior to elementary teachers in judging their students' reading interests, according to a study by Shores (953). Simpson and Soares (963) also found that stories favored by junior high students are not necessarily the same as those defined by adults as well-written.

What are the literary reading interests of children? Research located for this ASCD monograph can be summarized as follows:

Nelson (746) ascertained that, at the primary level, best-liked poems involved action, a story line, near-nonsense humor, little description.

Pittman (828) identified rhythmic animal poems as third grade favorites.

Shaffer and Wilson (940) decided that children seeking information preferred textbook sources to other sources that were studied.

McCloskey (674) concluded that early interest in books declined among 170 ghetto lads by the time they reached grade 6. "Too hard" was the most frequent response.

Simpson and Soares (963) studied 4,250 junior high students and found that action, conflict, suspense, and clear language were among the characteristics of popular books. Later research (964) added animal characters, teen-age heroes, and a bravery theme.

Comparable "interest research" of value which is included in the bibliography was reported by Nelms (743), Kravitz (568), and Applebee and Squire (27). Nelms worked with tenth graders to identify poetry from preferences. Kravitz surveyed newspaper interests of seventh and eighth graders, and the Applebee-Squire research concentrated on high school reading habits.

Chapter Eleven

Linguistics, Grammar, and Usage

JAMES D. QUISENBERRY

A STUDY of the current information on linguistics, grammar, and usage shows that what is usually termed *linguistics* by educators refers to *grammar* (the study of the structure and operations of language). Although pertinent work in *usage* (language in a specific social context) is also the result of a branch of linguistic science—dialectology—usage is generally thought of as inseparable from grammar by those engaged in English instruction. This marriage of terms, a shotgun wedding at best, was annulled by linguistic science. News of the annulment has spread, but Lorentzen (625), in listing six major difficulties encountered in getting educators to introduce new linguistic content into the curriculum, has at the head of the list "confusion of the two terms, *grammar* and *usage*" (625:114). He attributed this to certain textbooks' confusion of descriptive and prescriptive statements.

Goba (384), Loban (622), Strickland (1036), and Pooley (843) have clarified the distinction between grammar and usage. *Grammar* pertains to the linguistic processes involved in human communication, while *usage* pertains to a given dialect in a given social setting.

Since Shane's *Linguistics and the Classroom Teacher* (941) in 1967, additional experimental and developmental work has been produced applying the findings of linguistic science to elementary and secondary instruction. However, clarification is needed to dispel the ambiguities of terms like "linguistics approach," "new grammar," or "new English." As Algeo (5) points out, "modern linguistics" may refer to structural linguistics, or to transformational generative linguistics, or even to some less well-known approach such as tagmemics.[1]

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[1] "Tagmemics" refers to a taxonomic approach to grammatical analysis devised by Kenneth L. Pike.

It also seems reasonably safe to assume that many writers using the term "linguistics" in referring to methods, approaches, or materials really mean *structural* linguistics. Most writers working with a transformational approach, presumably, will call it just that in order to distinguish it from structuralist or other diverse approaches.

Therefore, this chapter divides logically into two sections: one reviewing the work in grammar (language structure and operations); the other concerned with work done in usage (dialect study, nonstandard usage, etc.). Within these two sections, careful distinction is made among traditional, structural, transformational, and other concepts pertaining to language.

Grammar

Research. In 1965 Zidonis (1166) reported on a two-year experiment in which a group of students were taught generative grammar at the ninth and tenth grade level. With Bateman (59) he elaborated the report in 1966. Student writing was analyzed to determine the effects of the program as compared with the writing of a control group, traditionally taught. From this study, Zidonis generalized that:

> 1. High school students learn the principles of generative grammar fairly easily.
>
> 2. Work with generative grammar enables pupils to increase significantly the proportion of well-formed sentences they write.
>
> 3. There seems to be a relation between a knowledge of generative grammar and an ability to produce well-formed sentences of greater than average structural complexity.
>
> 4. A knowledge of generative grammar can enable students to reduce occurrence of errors in their writing.

A 14-week study by Davis (219) produced similar results, namely, that instruction in kernel sentences in a transformational framework results in growth in sentence writing, and that traditional grammar instruction, on the other hand, contributes little to the improvement of syntax. Many in the field evidently agree. Among them are Levin (601), Gale (366), who worked at the elementary level, and Denby (235), who surveyed linguistics at the elementary level.

All research, however, does not categorically support linguistic approaches. R. Blake (86), for instance, found that the experimental group using both structural and transformational approaches *and* the control group receiving traditional grammar instruction made significant gains. The difference was not statistically significant, probably due to a lack of careful control of certain factors in the study. Likewise, an inquiry by H. Blake and Hammill (84) produced inconclusive results. Mellon (698) found no valid research supporting formal grammar instruction, including that of Bateman and Zidonis (59).

A question implied in several studies, especially those referring to "more mature syntactic structures," led to growing concern in the early 1960's as to how one could determine just what a "mature" syntactic structure is. Hunt (488) therefore developed his now-familiar T-unit to measure degrees of syntactic maturity more precisely than sentence length does. This unit is made up of one main clause plus the subordinate clauses attached to it. The T-unit was used in Mellon's study (698) designed to test the hypothesis that grammar-related sentence-combining practice enhances normal growth of syntactic fluency. Of three groups of seventh graders, the progress of the experimental group (transformational sentence-combining) was significantly greater than that of the control (conventional parsing) or the placebo (no grammar) groups. Green's study (399) also supported the T-unit as a valid unit of analysis in determining syntactic maturity. However, Christensen (175), a rhetorician, has pointed to what he calls a "radical flaw" in the studies of both Hunt and Mellon. In a mini-study, he illustrates the advantages of using a "free modifier" in determining syntactic and rhetorical maturity, as compared with the T-unit and base clause units of measure.

Other studies of interest include one by Ney (751), who worked on transformational drills, and one by Wyman (1159), who studied the nature, extent, and scope of sentence diagramming in the public schools. The latter study indicated that most states, and a substantial number of the larger city systems, use sentence diagramming, though research over a long period has shown sentence diagramming to be an ineffective and inferior method of instruction (Sherwin, 949). This is in line with Levin's (601) findings which were mentioned earlier, that interest in linguistic diagrams is increasing, though few were being used at the time of his study.

In summing up much of the relevant research in English language instruction, Sherwin (950) generalized that instruction in formal grammar results in little, if any, improvement in language skills (as measured in writing produced), though research on linguistic approaches to grammar instruction was not considered sufficiently extensive to merit either endorsement or rejection as of 1970.

Current practice. Many reports of "action" research with the "new grammars" have been printed, along with those concerning traditional approaches. Schap (917) presents a sample lecture on the "feature system" in transformational grammar which he has used quite successfully with junior high English classes. Also, plans designed to enable the student to use aspects of transformational grammar in learning about forms of language were reported by McGuire (684). Schiller (921) describes a similar plan, structurally oriented, which incorporates an inductive approach. Skinner's (977) approach to this included student imitation of structures provided, although evidence of results is slight. The Scrivners' (934) exercise in transforming sentences seemingly resulted in students' increased ability to read and understand the construction of "colorful" sentences and paragraphs, expanded their working vocabulary, and improved their understanding of the functions of various parts of speech.

Green's (398) approach to teaching more effective use of language, especially in written form, involved the inductive study of sentence rhetoric and the different effects of various structures. In a more general approach to studying the nature of language, Heiman (445) explained how such linguistic operations as echoing, reduplication, shortening, compounding, and the use of simile, metaphor, metonymy, etc., can be clearly illustrated in a study of slang. Melchior (697) reported on an imaginative unit for junior high students which began with an investigation of how Helen Keller learned language, and continued through studies of phonemes, morphemes, syntax, semantics —including brainwashing and propaganda—and figurative vs. literal expression.

At the elementary level, Seymour (939) presented a list of questions about language commonly asked by elementary school children, while Scott (933) reported on an original program which used color-coded word blocks to teach primary level children grammatical concepts.

Poetry has not escaped attention. Using samples of work by E. E. Cummings and by D. H. Lawrence, Isaacs (499) illustrated how linguistic analysis of literature (tagmemic for Cummings, transformational for Lawrence) enables students to gain additional meaning from a piece of writing and a reinforced understanding of grammar. Tyler (1083) also made analyses of Cummings' work. Thomas (1060) has provided a more expansive treatment of metaphorical expression analyzed from a transformational generative viewpoint.

A study of the practices reported here strongly suggests that a significant factor in each classroom is the enthusiasm of the teacher!

For those who are less than enthusiastic about having to teach grammar-related material, Graham (394) proposed an "effective and efficient way" to teach it. Her answer is programmed instruction. The advantages she lists include the following:

1. All work is individualized.
2. Extra class time results from not having to go over textbook material in lockstep as a whole class.
3. Students who already possess the target knowledge of a given unit do not have to be bored with it.
4. The results are quickly seen because it works.

McCoy (676) used a different type of programming to get students to learn what they were supposed to learn. She had them prepare their own tests (traditional grammar). Finally, Daigon and Hahn (213) collected an interesting bag of tricks, units which were considered "effective" by 98 participants in NDEA English Institutes. These concern recognition of sentence patterns, expanding sentences, and the like.

Positions and proposals. The battle over what is the "best" grammar instruction is being fought as much by pronouncement as by research. The paragraphs which follow report on the former category.

As a background for understanding the present situation, the résumés of Algeo (5) and Kelly (550) are suggested. Hayes (441), presuming victory of the linguistics approaches over the traditional, concentrated on proving the superiority of the transformational approach over the structural. Lorentzen (625), concerned about the problems involved in getting linguistics instruction into high school English programs, isolated six major difficulties and suggested how they might be alleviated. Grady (393) expressed concern lest teachers blindly follow fads and urged that they be alert to all aspects of linguistic science: grammar study (syntax), phonemic notation, dialect differences, and semantics.

Postman (844) was less than charitable toward grammar study. He issued a sharp warning against blind substitution of new terms and diagrams for old ones in the familiar but basically futile pursuit of grammar for grammar's sake. Postman (844) and Weingartner (1122) suggested that the study of semantics should be the core of any successful attempt to educate people. Semantics is described in a mouth-filling phrase as the "dynamics of human meaning-making processes."

Long (624), after examining established practices, wrote a defense of the "best" in the traditionalist, prescriptive approach to language teaching. In another defense of traditional grammar, Tibbetts (1066) mounts a long detailed attack on the "New Grammarians," those who are against traditional grammar and for a modern scientific grammar. He accuses them of mistakes in their theories, of failure to ascertain practical applications of their theories, and of forgetting the significance of language as a "civilizing force." His final statement, however, seems to weaken his argument. Here Tibbetts states that the grammatical revolution "failed at last." His attacks suggest that it is more likely that the revolution has just begun.

At this point it might be stated that concepts of grammar vary greatly. Allen (10), for instance, proposes that *written* English be recognized as a separate dialect and that there is a need for a separate grammar of written English. In a unique approach, Stern (1021) considers two points of view concerning grammatical analysis: a "spatial" point of view—learning *what* sentences are made of—and a "temporal" point of view—learning *how* sentences are made. The spatial grammarian begins with the abstract; the temporal grammarian ends there.

Johnson (518) proposed a "working classification" of grammars, rather than the usual traditional-structural-transformational categories. He suggests a triad of grammar types: *intuitive* (the native speaker's own set of linguistic reflexes), *analytical* (constructed grammars, such as the three above), and *pedagogic* (simplification of constructed grammar[s] to facilitate teaching and learning). One of Johnson's goals for the pedagogic grammar revealed a prescriptive tendency: that is, the goal of increasing "the correctness" of the student's language, such as getting him to say "she doesn't" or "she does not" instead of the (implied) incorrect "she don't."

Usage

Research. Two publications seem especially relevant for any in-depth study of social dialect and language usage. One is a basic collection of papers representing the status of work in language usage in 1964, edited by Shuy (958). The other, representing the current situation, is an anthology issue of the *Florida FL Reporter* (1). The 44 articles represent a broad segment of the latest thinking and research in the areas of dialect study and cultural differences, with special focus on problems of teaching speakers of nonstandard dialects.

A dramatic example of communication problems between teacher and the child who speaks a nonstandard dialect is reported by Marcus (654). A couple of items in her study, under way in 1969-1970, were the questions: "If a car ran over your pet, how would you feel?" and "If you could be a policeman or a fireman, what would you choose?" All speakers of "standard" English answered, in essence, "bad" and "policeman/fireman" respectively. But about 40 percent of the disadvantaged children answered "good" and "gum" respectively. The preliminary analysis is that, while every child knew all the words involved in these questions, the "if . . . how . . ." or "if . . . what . . ." type of grammatical structure was not shared by a great number of the children. So, they apparently salvaged "How do you *feel*" and "What do you *chew*" from the questions.

Several projects and studies have concentrated on this area of communication between teacher and so-called disadvantaged children. Baratz (51) reports on the use of materials written in the dialect of black students in teaching reading. Labov (574) has mounted a well-documented, example-rich attack on the notion that ghetto children are in any way "verbally deprived." He strikes hard at positions such as those of Bereiter and Engelmann (67A), Jensen (513), and others.

On a different tack, McDavid (679) draws pertinent samples of dialectal differences in expressions, pronunciation, and grammar from the work done on *The Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada* to show that regional and nonstandard dialects are *not* "degenerate versions" of some ideal standard language, but that there are "many varieties of standard American English," according to the various sources of cultural history.

Current practice. Most educators probably are aware of the effect an individual's language habits, oral or written, can have on those with whom he communicates. Initial impressions and value judgments may be determined to a considerable degree by the way a person speaks or writes the language. The Los Angeles City Schools, for instance, determined in a study of employer interviews (450) that the most significant personal characteristic that limits a young person's chance for employment was the inability to communicate, either orally or in writing.

Several writers have presented descriptions of the methods and techniques available for what Slager (979) calls "dialect engineering." He warns against tampering with anyone's dialect before becoming well acquainted with the work already done in regional and social dialectology. Allen's (11) approach to dialect engineering includes some of the strategies of the foreign language teacher, especially concentration on really essential items, use of pattern drills or substitution practice, and role playing. Loban (622) also presents samples of drills that have been used successfully and explains how and why the drills are to be used. He states the situation in a nutshell:

> Children need to perfect or acquire the prestige dialect—not because standard English is correct or superior in itself but because society exacts severe penalties from those who do not speak it. . . . Whether we like it or not, children who speak a social class dialect need the opportunity to learn standard usage if they are ever to be free to choose whether or not they will use it (622:593).

For a more expansive treatment of pattern practices, see Lin (610).

Bailey (44) provided an elaborate example of how linguists identify phonological and grammatical patterns, and used Jamaican Creole in illustrations. Stewart (1024), Labov and Cohen (578), and Labov (575) also present detailed information of differences between so-called standard English and the various nonstandard black dialects. Labov and Cohen provide materials designed to help English teachers with students who speak a nonstandard dialect. This includes the elementary teacher. Labov commented at some length on the implications of these differences for educators, especially reading teachers.

Loflin (623) analyzes a specific structural problem which nonstandard Negro English may cause for the speaker of a standard dialect. At the present stage of research on the subject, Loflin believes the grammatical system of nonstandard Negro English may prove to be different enough to warrant its being treated as a foreign language.

Another project of special interest to educators who deal with dialects and dialect problems is the *Dictionary of American Regional English*. Cassidy reported on what this work includes and how it could be useful to educators (161).

Positions and proposals. Who is really failing in the classroom where a language problem prevents adequate communication? Lin (609) calls the *teacher* "disadvantaged" when he does not have the training in linguistics which would enable him to recognize and to handle language problems appropriately, especially those due to dialect differences. Focusing on the literacy problem in Appalachia, Skinner (978) blames the illiteracy in that area on the failure of the schools to provide the children with the means of learning the standard dialect. In view of other studies cited, such a task apparently would be quite complex. Goodman (391) suggests, rather than attempting to change the child's language from nonstandard to standard through a process of substitution or extinction of the child's native dialect, that standard usage may be achieved through expansion of his own speech habits.

Several authorities strongly recommend that any attempt to teach standard English to speakers of a nonstandard dialect must be preceded by linguistic analysis and description of the dialect(s) involved, allowing the materials to be adapted accordingly. (See bibliographic references to Stewart, 1024; Shuy, 955; Lin, 609; and Bailey, 44.) Since there are not nearly enough dialectologists to go around, the most feasible solution seems to be that proposed by Lin (609), Bailey (44), Shrewsbury (954), and others: practical training in linguistics for any teacher who deals with language and language problems.

To sum up this section, we again turn to Loban:

> The major course of action seems quite clear. Teachers must proceed on the principle of adding standard English to the dialect of pupils whose speech reflects economic disadvantage. The other alternative, substituting standard English and eliminating the dialect, is neither feasible on sociological grounds nor sensible on psychological grounds. Least of all is it humane (622:595).

Miscellany

An article by Snider (994) in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal* should be of interest to counselors. He cites studies which suggest (a) that basic personality factors are revealed through the linguistic content, as well as the ideational content, of speech and writing; and (b) that verbal behavior may be not only a simple correlate of other behavior, but also a partial determinant. He explains how this knowledge can be used by the school counselor.

For those who want to do some independent reading in the area of linguistics but who fear the specialized language often used by linguists, Lowry (632) has provided a "glossary" of linguistic terms.

Finally, Samuels (904) has written a review of the complicated research now being conducted by linguists, psychologists, and psycholinguists endeavoring to describe the knowledge a native speaker has about his language and how it is acquired and utilized. As the writer (904:116) points out, "Studies in psycholinguistics have potentially important implications for education," but unfortunately "they have had little impact so far." This chapter, hopefully, has made clear that the picture is changing, and changing rapidly.

Chapter Twelve

Foreign Language Instruction

WILMA S. LONGSTREET

SEVERAL questions are involved when one contemplates research bearing on the future of foreign language teaching: (a) Should foreign languages be studied at all? This is a question of priorities—that is, whether the study of foreign languages can yield as important a contribution to the education of the young as other, increasingly numerous study areas might. If foreign language study *is* deemed sufficiently significant to be included in the regular educational program, then (b) *what* teaching methods would best achieve the objectives? The question is not only one of efficiency, but of the type of emphasis to be placed on language study within the total educational discourse. Finally, (c) there is the question of *when* foreign language study should begin. Is there a most propitious period in the child's development for the start of language instruction? Assuming that there is, would it be of value to start the learning of a second language during some other period? Each of these questions is considered in turn.

Basic Questions About Foreign Language Teaching

Can the study of a second language in U.S. schools be defended? This question seems to merit an affirmative reply. Mildenberger (710) has presented statistics indicating that the offering of foreign language courses among the public secondary schools has increased from 43.6 percent in 1954 to 77.7 percent in 1965. The practical aspects of this favorable reply are easily discernible in this day of high-speed transportation and lightning-swift communication. C. W. Chaney, retired U.S. Army colonel and former director of the

Defense Language Institute, which was established in 1963, expressed the need for foreign language study in this way:

> The needs of our nation today demand highly skilled professional military forces capable of operating anywhere on the face of the globe. For these modern Armed Forces, a knowledge of foreign language is essential (227).

Chaney's statement underscores the need for more practical means of communication which has arisen as a result of increased travel and continual contacts with non-English speaking people.

There have been equally favorable answers of another nature. Miele (709) sees foreign language study as a way of acquiring a better understanding of foreign cultures. Parker (799) conceives of this in terms of improving the average person's comprehension of foreign affairs. Riestra and Johnson (872) have found that the study of a foreign language favorably influences elementary school children's attitudes toward foreign-speaking people. Donoghue (258) identified positive effects not only in attitude but also in scholarship.

Robert F. Spencer (1002), a respected anthropologist, would view the study of foreign languages pan-humanistically, as a means of increasing understanding with regard to all the complexities of human nature as it unfolds socially. Spencer's view is free of nationalistic boundaries, placing its accent on the relationship of human meaning to the linguistic traits of different language groups. He gives, as an instance, the Keresan language which is spoken by groups of American Indians in New Mexico. Tense, representative of the past, present, and future in English, plays almost no role in Keresan, while every expression carries an indicator of whether the action described was experienced by the speaker or obtained by hearsay. It is a distinction that is made only infrequently by the English-speaking person. According to Spencer, the interpretation of reality itself is influenced by the language one speaks:

> As one moves across the world, examining this distinctly human phenomenon—language—one becomes aware of the remarkable difference in logical category which the various linguistic units may offer. There are different realms of experience which arise as a function of language. Because of their language structure, another people may approach reality differently from the English speaker (1002).

Within the context of Spencer's approach, the concept of foreign language study could be expanded to include the study of dialects. Indeed, Gladney (378) has already proposed the teaching of the standard dialect as a foreign language to children speaking nonstandard dialects.

The reasons for studying foreign languages are slowly pushing their way to the very frontiers of psycholinguistics. Foreign language study can be conceived of as a way of increasing the child's ability to operate with different symbolic systems. The range of the child's intellectual development might thereby be increased. Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens (424), among many, have noted the capacity of the child to learn two or more languages simultaneously if exposed to them at some length before the age of eight or nine. Returning to Spencer's concept, not unrelated to the Sapir-Whorfian hypothesis, if the view of reality is modified by the particular characteristics of the language spoken, it seems probable that the child who is in command of more than one language will possess, consciously or unconsciously, a broader base for the interpretation of reality.

In this regard, Donoghue (259) has found a positive relationship between early foreign language instruction and high school achievement. Others, however, have not had such positive results. Potts (846) found no effect on the reading and general achievement of elementary school children from second language instruction. Gibboney (375), too, could only report that no adverse effects on high school achievements were observed as a result of foreign language study.

It should be remembered that though these studies are very useful, they are related to measuring the depth of the child's achievement within the conceptual base of his native tongue. They do not measure whether the range of intellectual understandings has increased. This is an area of research which remains to be explored. How closely related the development of the primary language is to thought development has been a major object of debate in the 20th century. The resolution of this debate will undoubtedly influence scholastic attitudes toward second language study.

What teaching methods are most effective? The reasons underlying the inclusion of a foreign language in the curriculum are logically related to the instructional methodologies adopted. Traditionally, the study of foreign languages had as its goal the attainment of competence in reading great works in their original version so that a measure of their greatness could more fully be captured by the individual. The cognitive code-learning theory has been at the foundation of teaching approaches based on a prescriptive grammar, from which the student would deductively achieve a functional use of the language. In a literary sense, the traditional approach is a way of getting acquainted with the culture of a particular language group. However, how current that culture is, and how practical such knowledge might be in an actual situation, would appear to be of little concern. The major emphasis is on the teaching of the written use of the language since this form of linguistic expression has been the carrier of great works.

In the 20th century, foreign language study has been gradually transformed until the major thrust in the early 1970's has become a practical, oral one. The cultural element is present in its *immediacy* rather than in its *greatness*. Foreign language teaching is conceived of as training in practical skills. Within this context, the Defense Language Institute (227) adopted an "Intensive Full-Time Training" program characterized by six hours spent each day with the instructor, by three hours of self-study, and by small classes. This enviable length of time, unavailable to the average school situation, makes use of the audio-lingual method based on a theory of habit formation.

The method consists of concentrated periods of listening to the language as spoken by a native speaker, of mimicking native speech so that correct habits of pronunciation and speech reproduction will be acquired, and then of memorizing dialogues and sentence patterns so as to achieve automatic use of the language. The grammar is dealt with inductively. That is, first the oral language is learned and then the rules are sought. The written language, it is contended, will come more readily after the spoken language has been acquired. The language laboratory, which makes possible the repeated use of tapes and continual oral drill, is an integral part of the audio-lingual approach.

Foreign language study as described in the army's Division of Language Instruction has had considerable influence on public school foreign language instruction. Brooks' *Language and Language Learning* (119) also has played a major role in the introduction of the audio-lingual method to the scholastic world. Although, as Korsten and Ott (566) have noted, the need for an instructional methodology which would enable students to communicate with native speakers of another language has been at the root of the widespread scholastic adoption and adaptation of the audio-lingual approach, other considerations have been influential. The descriptive linguist's concept that language is an essential part of the culture it represents was, for example, incorporated into the audio-lingual method by means of dialogues representative of daily, current usage. The similarities between the natural or direct teaching approach and the audio-lingual method, noted by Kirch (559), facilitated the adoption of audio-lingual materials especially among those who believed in the active involvement of the child in learning activities. The continual repetition of the foreign language by a native has been interpreted as a "natural" way to learn a language, that is, the way the young child learns his own language. The transformational grammarians led by Chomsky (173, 174) have challenged this behavioristic stimulus-response description of language acquisition sustained by Skinner (975) and scholastically interpreted through the audio-lingual habit theory. Chomsky maintains that language acquisition is based on a system of rules for which the individual has innate predispositions.

There are a number of "packaged" audio-lingual programs available to the schools. Among the better-known ones are: *Modern Spanish*, begun in 1956 with Rockefeller Foundation support; *A-LM*, begun in 1959 with federal support; and the *Aural-oral series*, begun in 1959 by Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. The advent of educational TV has made it possible to expand the audio-lingual method so that it is more closely relatable to everyday life and culture. One TV program promoting *F*oreign *L*anguage in the *E*lementary *S*chool (FLES) is called *Parlons Français*, and consists of 150 fifteen-minute films. Its supporters claim that the program has the advantages of carefully graded materials, gifted teachers, and the possibility of sophisticated drill and repetition through dramatic performances, songs, and the like.

There is considerable doubt that the audio-lingual habit theory as translated into classroom practices is superior in results to the application of the cognitive code-learning theory. In a comparative study of the two approaches, Chastain and Woerdehoff (171) found that students who had studied under the cognitive method achieved higher scores in reading and did as well or better in other skill areas than the audio-lingual students did. The achievement of audio-lingual students was higher only in their ability to mimic a native speaker.

Chastain (170) continued the study with the same subjects the following year and found that differences in language achievement obtained by varying the emphasis in the first year tended to disappear as the stress was changed. An earlier study by Scherer and Wertheimer (919) also compared the audio-lingual methodologies with more traditional approaches. The results indicated that while audio-lingual students achieved greater *speaking* fluency, the traditionally taught students achieved superior *writing* skills during the same two-year period. As Carroll (156) pointed out, the differences seem to be traceable to the primary objectives.

There is, at present, an ongoing search for new technological breakthroughs that will go well beyond the promising beginning of the language laboratory. Different types of language laboratories have been developed, but Mueller and Wiersma's (730) study of their relative effectiveness on foreign language achievement has uncovered no appreciable difference. Similarly, Johnson's (516) investigation, which compared the effects of a simple tape recorder and a laboratory approach, likewise revealed no significant difference.

Other language teaching tools have been introduced. Tanguay (1050) has adopted the telephone as a means of individualizing instruction in French and Spanish. Under experimental conditions, Forsdale and Dykstra (343) have tested a film device which would permit student-film interaction, thereby encouraging learner participation. Martinez (659) described the successful use of newspapers in beginning Spanish classes at the junior high level. McGuire (685) and Hulse (483) have introduced games as a means of making Spanish practice more pleasurable as well as more effective. According to Ruplin and Russell (893), the work which the student does outside the classroom must be more adequately structured. In their German program, the computer acts as the students' tutor, assigning tasks by typing out messages. Their CAI[1] program consists of three parts: (a) phonological drill with spelling practice; (b) grammatical structure; and (c) cultural readings. Theirs is a programmed approach making use of audio-lingual techniques along with the assistance of a computer.

Programmed instruction, another Skinnerian development in teaching methodologies, definitely has entered the field of foreign language study. Mueller's investigation (731), which was supported by an NDEA Title II grant, has confirmed that foreign languages can be effectively learned by using programmed materials. Blaud and Keislar (88) likewise have demonstrated that programmed materials can be successfully used by elementary pupils as they learn how to speak a foreign language. On the other hand, Clark and Clark (182) compared programmed and conventional instruction in a German course and found that the conventionally taught students achieved better scores in reading German while students taught by programmed-learning techniques performed better when speaking the language. Fiks (325) has compiled a list of 26 self-instructional programs, which, as of 1966, were commercially available.

During the 1960's, the conception of language as a symbolic system intimately connected with thought development gained momentum in every area of the language arts. Yet, notwithstanding the considerable stress that has been placed on the possible contributions of psychology and linguistics to foreign language teaching, little has been accomplished in specifying rules and principles which could be used in the classroom situation. Certainly, the emphasis placed on the mastery of practical communication skills would have to be reevaluated. Bennett (66) has underlined the importance of understanding what the primary needs of the learners are. For example, young children might well acquire proficiency in speaking and understanding a foreign language as aspects of their play, while older children might benefit more from reading and aural comprehension. In any case, according to Bennett, the stress is on the psychological needs of the learner rather than on the requirements of speaking to a native.

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[1] Computer Assisted Instruction

Politzer (840) has taken the position that rules are simply descriptors of the student's own performance and not prescriptors. In his opinion, the student should be taught concepts which in the long run can facilitate his learning more than one language. Moulton (728) would use contrastive linguistics so that the unique features of various languages would be underlined. Lado (580) has been especially concerned with the problems a student encounters in learning foreign linguistic patterns. The contributions of linguistics, psychology, and sociology to foreign language teaching are multiplying, and the possible influence of the transformational grammarians bears close watching.

What is the best time for beginning foreign language instruction? The question which inevitably arises along with *whether* a second language should be studied and *how* it should be studied is *when* such a study should begin. Again, we find ourselves involved with the question of goals. If the all-dominant purpose of foreign language study is the practical acquisition of communication skills, the most likely answer is—*as early as possible.* The very young child seemingly is able to learn a foreign language neurologically in the same way that a native would. And yet, under scholastic conditions, FLES has left many doubts with regard to actual accomplishment. Carroll (151) has announced that no evidence of superior foreign language achievement has been found for young children except with respect to pronunciation. Age, then, conceivably may not be as vital as the actual amount of time spent in foreign language study.

The Modern Language Association by the way, has issued a policy recommendation dating back to 1961 which discourages beginning FLES unless the program can be followed through to grade 12 (708A). As Hocking (464) points out, this MLA statement was prompted by the belief that FLES is justified only if practical competency is achieved. That foreign languages can be carriers of cultural learnings. or developers of increased intellectual capacity, or ways of improving provincial attitudes toward foreigners does not seem to enter into consideration. Certainly, a case can be made for FLES even if future language study is not possible.

The fact that children can and do learn more than one language simultaneously would seem to indicate that the teaching methodologies employed are not effectively tapping the child's potential. Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens (424) underscore the distinction between how languages can be *learned* and how languages can be *taught*. At present, the fact seems to be that we are unable to teach FLES so that practical mastery is attained by the child. Until more efficient methodologies are developed, the goal of language acquisition will have to be reinforced by other objectives.

Most of the FLES methodologies fluctuate between the direct language approach and the audio-lingual method, with a dash of programmed instruction thrown in for good measure. Often such methods are intended to capitalize on the child's natural disposition to language learning by replicating, to some degree, the way the child first learns his native tongue. What is all too frequently overlooked is that, even at the third grade level, a long period of cultural formation lies between the child's acquisition of his primary language and his approach to a second language. As a result, he is no longer satisfied with repeating the same sentence patterns over and over again. In an effort to achieve greater meaningfulness for the learner, Mattison (663) has suggested a team approach to the development of FLES materials. Hilaire (457) has called for FLES teacher training and has listed what she considers the basic qualifications for the FLES teacher. Otto (785) has compared three FLES approaches and found that the most effective involved a combination of a language specialist and television techniques. Finocchiaro (330) has compiled a selection of teaching methodologies considered especially suitable to the elementary school child. Donoghue (258) has made a similar list for foreign language teachers working with children and youth of any school age.

With the increased number of opportunities for learning experiences that now seem essential in the elementary school program, foreign language study may have to be delayed until the late middle school years or even until the high school.[2] The possibility of learning a language as a native might, or with real expertise, would be diminished considerably under these circumstances. Indeed, Ochoa and McIntyre (763) have concluded that genuine mastery of a foreign language is most difficult for students when instruction is postponed to the higher levels. The question, then, may be whether a foreign language should be begun at the secondary level for the large number of students who are not likely to attain anything like mastery under the present conditions of methodological understanding.

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[2] A notable exception to this generalization would be in parts of the United States where a second language already is widespread; for example, Japanese in Hawaii or Spanish in the Southwest.

Again, the answer must be clarified in terms of the goals we seek. If an understanding of language structures as reflections of attitudes, cultural patterns, and means of thought is desired, then foreign language study probably can begin at any age and can be profitable even if the period of study available is brief—provided, of course, that the materials studied accurately *reflect these goals* and not mere practical competency.

The progress made by linguists in the past decade holds great promise, and may well require a period in which judgment is suspended while new tools for language teaching are developed.

Chapter Thirteen

Research in Retrospect

JAMES D. WALDEN

A CENTURY of educational research in the language arts has yielded a large number of studies, reviews of studies, and summaries of studies. Particularly since 1960, research has proliferated because of an increase in the number of scholars and advanced students, because of renewed interest in language, and due to the use of the computer and retrieval systems. Writers and researchers almost invariably have expressed confidence that their contribution will make a difference —at least in some corner of the educational arena.

At the same time, there are those who contend that significant changes have not resulted from volumes of data and their accompanying articles. For instance, Dwight Allen and Robert Mackin said:

> Unfortunately, as educators we not only delude the public but ourselves as well. Real change is occurring in a few districts, in a few schools, in a few classrooms across the nation, but the gap between our talk and our action has been so great as to embarrass the most innovative members of our profession (6A:485).

In 1963, in the *Handbook of Research on Teaching,* Wallen and Travers in their chapter on teaching methods reported the impression that ". . . there is hardly any evidence to favor one method over another" (1107A). According to many writers, the generalization to be drawn from research is that variations in teaching and educational practice often do not make any consistent significant or practical difference.

Research evidence of over 50 years' accumulation has stressed the significance of the range of individual differences existing among the students in our classrooms. Yet we were still attempting to find instructional techniques and administrative arrangements to accommodate these differences.

Studies concerned with each of the language arts appear to many readers to be inconclusive, and often contradictory. Such studies seem to provide little direction for the teacher concerned with the important tasks of day-to-day instruction.

Common and persistent difficulties face those who use the tools and techniques of research in an effort to improve instructional programs as well as instructional techniques. Studies sometimes fail to provide "conclusive findings" for reasons ranging from interference of one type or another to a lack of effective instruments. Perhaps they fail because of a lack of understanding of the research effort by those who must work with the products of research. Many knowledge gaps still exist. New problems demand solution before we have been successful in solving problems of long standing.

The problems of research and of assimilating the findings cannot, however, be cause for professionals to turn away. While granting the need for improved research efforts, we must continue to look to research for help. Since the 1963 ASCD review of language arts research (943), new light has been thrown on old problems and first light has been shed on some new problems. While not remotely complete, the "research map" which defines the learning process has begun to offer well-established clues. Each day new data are added to make the map more complete. Professional organizations continue to supply valuable new dimensions to the educational picture. The task now remains for each of us to study, utilize, and extend the clues we have.

For some, the contribution will be in the form of new studies, in new research techniques, or in new evaluation instruments. Others will add to the field of study through new interpretations of existing data. Each of us has the responsibility not only for reading the reports, but also for assessing current practices in light of the findings and for adjusting those practices when adjustments seem feasible.

Those who make the policies which shape the elementary school have a particular responsibility. No other segment of education touches so many children so soon. Proposals to change the language learning environment for these students must be carefully considered, while proposals to leave existing environments untouched must be given the same consideration. At the secondary level, greater heed needs to be given to the work begun in the elementary school years, and more attention is demanded by the interrelationships among the components of the language arts.

For their part, universities need to concentrate not only on better English education, but also on the total preparation of those who will endeavor to improve the use of the mother tongue by the children and youth of the United States.

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